

# **HP 3000 SYSTEMS PROGRAMMING LANGUAGE**

HEWLETT  PACKARD

3000 computer systems

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# ***PREFACE***

This is the reference manual for the HP 3000 Systems Programming Language (SPL/3000). A prerequisite to this manual is previous experience with SPL/3000 gained through the *HP 3000 Systems Programming Language Textbook (03000-90003)* and/or a Hewlett-Packard training course in SPL/3000.

This book is divided into five sections:

- Section I — Program Components
- Section II — Constants and Identifiers
- Section III — Declarations
- Section IV — Expressions
- Section V — Statements

Each topic in SPL/3000 is discussed in four parts:

- Purpose
- Syntax
- Semantics
- Examples

At the end of this manual are appendices listing reserved words, the ASCII character set used in SPL/3000, compiler commands, operating system commands, machine instructions, an index of all syntax rules, and instructions for building an intrinsic file.

The SPL/3000 compiler and the machine code which it generates operate within the HP 3000 Multiprogramming Executive (MPE/3000). The relevant documents are

- HP 3000 Multiprogramming Executive Operating System (03000-90005)*
- HP 3000 Multiprogramming Executive Console Operator's Guide (03000-90006)*

Information on HP 3000 hardware is contained in:

- HP 3000 Reference Manual (03000-90019)*

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# ***INTRODUCTION***

SPL/3000 is a high-level, machine-dependent programming language that is particularly well suited for the development of compilers, operating systems, subsystems, monitors, supervisors, etc.

SPL/3000 has many features normally found only in high-level languages such as PL/1 or ALGOL: free-form structure, arithmetic and logical expressions, high-level statements (IF, FOR, GOTO, CASE, DO-UNTIL, WHILE-DO, MOVE, SCAN, procedure call, assignment, and compound statements), recursive procedures and subroutines, and variables and arrays of six data types (byte, integer, logical, double integer, real, and long real). In addition, IF, FOR, CASE, DO-UNTIL, and WHILE-DO statements can be indefinitely nested within each other and themselves. These features significantly reduce the time required to write programs and make them much easier to read and update.

In addition, however, machine-level constructs have been included to ensure that complete control of the machine is available to the programmer when he needs it. These include direct register references, branches based on actual hardware conditions, bit extracts, deposits, and shifts, delete statements, register push/set statements and an Assemble statement to generate any sequence of machine instructions.

## **CONVENTIONS**

In the HP 3000, the bits of a word(s) are numbered from left to right starting with 0. Thus the sign bit, or most significant bit, of a single word is bit 0 and the least significant bit is bit 15.

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10   11   12   13   14   15

## SYNTAX NOTATIONS

The syntax of SPL/3000 is described in an expanded version of Backus Normal Form (BNF) notation. BNF is a symbolic description language that allows a very concise and precise definition of how the constructs of a language can be put together (i.e., how sentences in a language can look). BNF does not tell what a construct does (its meaning or semantics), only how it is analyzed into parts.

BNF consists of the following components:

< . . . >      Left and right broken brackets are used to set off a metalinguistic variable. Each metalinguistic variable stands for one part of the language's syntax and each is defined by a metalinguistic formula. For English, <sentence>, <noun>, <verb>, and <adverb> are all metalinguistic variables.

<program> <statement>

::=            The symbol double-colon-equals (:=) "is defined as" in BNF. It is always preceded by a single metalinguistic variable and followed by the formula which defines the structure of that variable from left to right.

<sentence> ::= *formula*

Formulas are composed of three things: metalinguistic variables, alternative definition indicators ("or" signs), and literal symbols (characters which stand for themselves).

|              The symbol | means "or." It separates multiple definitions (formulas) of a metalinguistic variable.

<sentence> ::= <simple sentence> | <compound sentence>

Each metalinguistic variable in the formula must be defined in another BNF definition (each definition is called a "production").

**SYMBOLS**    Characters standing by themselves (not enclosed in < >) are literal characters that must appear in the program exactly as they stand in the definition. If any production is traced through completely (i.e., the productions of all variables used are also examined) the process will always come to a stop when productions are reached that consist of all literals. Literal symbols require no further definition. For example, in the formula below, BEGIN is a literal symbol:

<global head> ::= BEGIN <data group> <procedure group>

{ . . . }       Brackets are used to enclose an English explanation that is inserted in a production in place of a metalinguistic variable when the BNF required is either impossible or too cumbersome. For example:

<empty> ::= {a character string of zero length}

†            Comments or notes within BNF products appear indented below the variable to which they apply preceded by a † character. These comments are not metalinguistic variables; they are merely explanatory material.

$\langle \text{sign} \rangle ::= + \mid -$   
    † the symbol – indicates two's complement

list            The word “list” is used in metalinguistic variables to imply the common construct of a list of items of the same class separated by commas.

$\langle \text{identifier list} \rangle ::= \langle \text{identifier} \rangle \mid \langle \text{identifier list} \rangle, \langle \text{identifier} \rangle$

This production says that an identifier list can consist of a number of identifiers separated by commas. Productions of this type are assumed whenever a metalinguistic variable is combined with the word “list” in a formula.

In the description of symbolic constructs it is important to indicate where different data types are allowed. Assume the following abbreviations:

i	Integer
r	Real
l	Logical
b	Byte
d	Double
e	Long (extended precision)

The symbol T with a subscript is used in the syntax to indicate allowable classes of data types:

T	Integer, logical, byte, real, long, double.
T <sub>ilb</sub>	Integer, logical, byte.
T <sub>il</sub>	Integer, logical.
T <sub>irld</sub>	Integer, real, logical, double, long.
T <sub>ire</sub>	Integer, real, long.

The occurrence of one of these T symbols in a metalinguistic variable specifies that this symbol must be replaced consistently (throughout the production) by the appropriate set of English words. In some case this convention reduces the number of productions required dramatically. For example the syntactic rule

$\langle T_{ilr} \text{ array identifier} \rangle ::= \langle \text{identifier} \rangle$

corresponds to

```

<integer array identifier> ::= <identifier>
<logical array identifier> ::= <identifier>
<real array identifier> ::= <identifier>

```

or, in another case, the notation

```

<Tilr variable> ::= <Tilr simpvar identifier> | <Til pointer identifier>

```

expands to

```

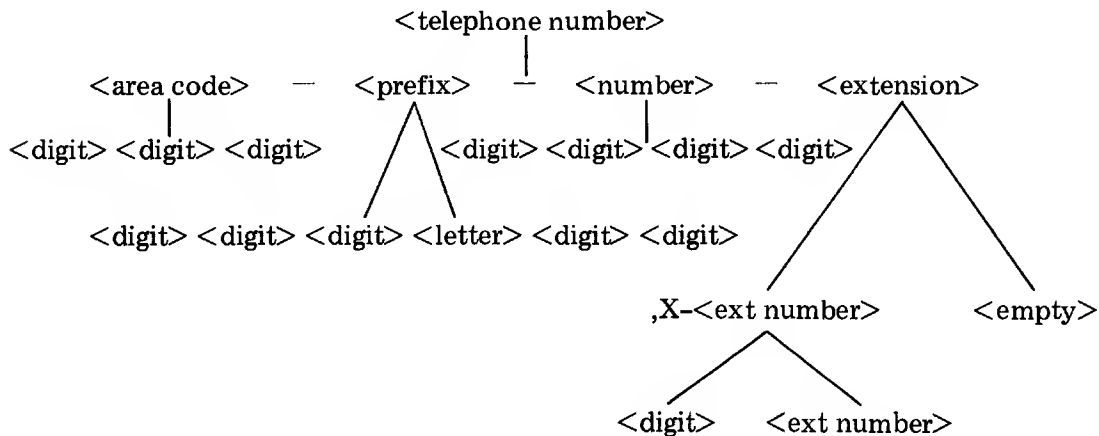
<integer variable> ::= <integer simpvar identifier> | <integer pointer identifier>
<logical variable> ::= <logical simpvar identifier> | <logical pointer identifier>
<real variable> ::= <real simpvar identifier>

```

The way in which BNF can be used to describe syntax is easily demonstrated by an example. Consider the structure of a telephone number:

area code — prefix — number — extension

All possible combinations of legal telephone numbers can be diagramed by this tree structure:



The definitions for <digit> and <letter> have been omitted from this diagram for clarity. Branches in the diagram represent alternative forms. The tree above says that a phone number consists of an area code, prefix, number, and extension. The prefix can be a three-digit number or a two-letter-digit exchange. The extension can be as long as desired or left off (<empty>). Note that extension number can be indefinitely long because “ext number” appears in the definition of “ext numbers.” (Semantics may be used to restrict this indefinite length.)

The BNF description of this structure is:

```
<telephone number> ::= <area code> – <prefix> – <number> <extension>
<area code>          ::= <digit> <digit> <digit>
<prefix>             ::= <digit> <digit> <digit> | <letter> <letter> <digit>
<number>             ::= <digit> <digit> <digit> <digit>
<extension>          ::= ,X-<ext number> | <empty>
<ext number>         ::= <digit> | <ext number> <digit>
<digit>              ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
<letter>             ::= A|B|C|D|E|F|G|H|I|J|K|L|M|N|O|P|R|S|T|U|V|W|X|Y
<empty>              ::= { a character string of zero length; i.e., nothing }
```

Syntax describes what elements must appear in what order for something to be a “legal” (qualified) telephone number. However, rules regarding *how* to combine these elements are usually omitted from the syntax for clarity and must be described in English sentences elsewhere. These omitted rules are called semantics and are as important in describing the grammar of a language as is the syntax.

For example, neither the area code nor the prefix in a telephone number can begin with the digit zero, but nowhere is this mentioned in the syntax. This restriction could be incorporated in the syntax, but such as inclusion might make the syntax clumsy and difficult to use. Instead, this restriction is easily described (along with other similar restrictions) in an English sentence (i.e., semantically).

## Syntax References

The following notation is used after each block of syntax productions to provide references to metalinguistic variables which are left undefined:

```
<logical primary>    → III, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS
metalinguistic variable → section, heading within section
```

# ***SECTION I***

## ***Program Components***

### **PROGRAM STRUCTURE**

The SPL/3000 compiler accepts either complete programs or subprograms. In a subprogram compilation global declarations allocate no space; code is generated for procedures only, not for a main body.

#### **Syntax**

<program>	::= <global head> <main body>.
<global head>	::= BEGIN <data group> <procedure group>
<main body>	::= <compound tail>
<compound tail>	::= <statement> END   <statement> ; <compound tail>
<compound statement>	::= BEGIN <compound tail>
<subprogram>	::= BEGIN <subdata group> <proc group> END.
<data group>	::= <data group> <data declaration> ;   <empty>
<procedure group>	::= <proc group> <subroutine declaration>   <proc group>
<proc group>	::= <proc group> <procedure declaration> ;   <proc group> <intrinsic declaration> ;   <empty>
<subdata group>	::= <subdata group> <subdata declaration> ;   <subdata declaration> ;   <empty>
<empty>	::= { a character string of zero length }

#### **Syntax References**

<data declaration>	→ III, DECLARATION TYPES
<subroutine declaration>	→ III, SUBROUTINE DECLARATIONS
<procedure declaration>	→ III, PROCEDURE DECLARATIONS
<intrinsic declaration>	→ III, INTRINSIC DECLARATIONS
<subdata declaration>	→ III, DECLARATION TYPES
<statement>	→ V, STATEMENT TYPES

## Semantics

The <global head> contains all the global declarations for a main program and the <main body> contains all the statements of a main program. When procedures only are compiled (<subprogram>), global data declarations allocate no space because the procedures will be linked up with a main program (which is compiled separately) by the operating system. See Appendix C, "Compiler Commands," for details on subprogram compilation.

BEGIN and END are used as a delimiting pair and are matched, much like parentheses. Any compilation is bracketed by a BEGIN and an END. Within the body of a main program or a procedure, a BEGIN-END pair can be used to combine several statements into one. A program is terminated by an END. or when all BEGINS are matched.

### EXAMPLES:

```
<<program>>
  BEGIN
    INTEGER A,B,C, <<data group>>
    PROCEDURE N(X,Y,Z); <<procedure group>>
      INTEGER X,Y,Z;
      X := X* (Y+Z);
      FOR Y := 1 UNTIL 20 DO <<main body>>
        N(A,B,C);
      END.
  END.

<<compound statement>>
  BEGIN
    A := B;
    B := D;
    E := F;
  END;
  BEGIN
    A := B;
    IF A > 10 THEN
      BEGIN
        C := A+20;
        D := E-F;
        G := A*F
      END;
    END;
  END;

<<subprogram>>
  BEGIN
    INTEGER N,M,O; <<allocate no space>>
    EQUATE A := 101, B := 202; <<subdata group>>
    PROCEDURE C;
      BEGIN
        .
        .
        .
        .
        .
      END;
```

```

PROCEDURE D;
  BEGIN
    .
    .
  END;
PROCEDURE E;
  BEGIN
    .
    .
  <<main body, if any, is ignored>>
END

```

## COMMENTS

A comment is used to document a program but has no effect upon the functioning of the program itself (i.e., a comment generates no code). In SPL/3000 comments of two types can be inserted wherever needed.

### Syntax

```

<comment> ::= COMMENT {any sequence of ASCII characters except semicolon}; |
            << {any sequence of ASCII characters excluding>> }>>

```

### Syntax Reference

ASCII characters → Appendix, C

### Semantics

The first form of comment (COMMENT . . .;) is equivalent to a null statement and can be used anywhere a statement (or declaration) would be expected. The second form of comment (<<. . .>>) can be used anywhere in a program, except within an identifier.

The characters within a comment are ignored by the compiler (they are *not* upshifted if lowercase).

#### EXAMPLES:

```

<<comment>>
  COMMENT CONTROL: MESSAGE;
  <<This is a comment!>>
  COMMENT
    THIS
    IS
    A
    COMMENT
    !
    ;

```



## DELIMITERS

Blanks are always recognized as delimiters in SPL/3000, except within character strings.  
Special characters can also act as delimiters:

Semicolon (;)  
Parentheses ( )  
Operators (+, -, \*, /, ^)  
Brackets ( [ ] )

# ***SECTION II***

## ***Constants and Identifiers***

### **CONSTANT TYPES**

Constants are literal values that stand for themselves.

There are two basic types of constants in SPL/3000: numerical constants and string constants.

#### **Syntax**

```
<constant> ::= <number> | <string>
<number>   ::= <integer> |
               † 16 bits
             <real number> |
               † 32 bit floating point
             <double integer> |
               † 32 bit integer
             <long real number> |
               † 48 bit floating point
             <logical value>
               † 16 bits
```

#### **Semantics**

In SPL/3000 constants are merely bit patterns that occupy a given number of bits. A given 16-bit pattern can have many constant interpretations (two characters, an integer, a logical value, etc.). Note that hardware instructions provide arithmetic capability for all of the constant types mentioned here except for long (extended precision) real numbers; operations on long data use library procedures.

## INTEGER CONSTANTS

There are three representations for integer constants: decimal integers, based integers, and composite integers. Any integer can be specified as type double by following it with a D.

### Syntax

<integer>	::= <unsigned integer>   † unsigned assumed positive <sign> <unsigned integer>
<decimal integer>	::= <digit>   <decimal integer> <digit>
<unsigned integer>	::= <decimal integer>   <based integer>   <composite integer>   <equate invocation>
<digit>	::= 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
<sign>	::= + - †-is two's complement
<based integer>	::= %<base part> <base digit>   <based integer> <base digit>
<base part>	::= (<base>)   <empty> †<empty> means octal
<base>	::= {any number of the set (2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16)}
<empty>	::= {a character string of zero length }
<base digit>	::= {any of the digits from 0 to <base> -1 inclusive, taken from the set (0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,F) }
<composite integer>	::= [<integer field list>]
<integer field>	::= <number of bits> /<decimal integer>   <number of bits> /<based integer>   <number of bits> /<composite integer>
<number of bits>	::= <decimal integer>
<double integer>	::= <integer> D † up to 32 bits

### Syntax References

<equate invocation> → III, EQUATE DECLARATION AND INVOCATION

### Semantics

Decimal integers are the simplest form of integer; they consist of a sequence of decimal digits. Octal (base eight) integers are next in complexity; they consist of a sequence of octal digits (0 to 7) preceded by a percent sign (%). Based integers consist of a base and a sequence of digits legal in that base. All bases from 2 through 16 are allowed (the digits A, B, C, D, E, and F stand for 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15).

Composite integers are formed through left-to-right concatenation of binary bit fields. In each bit field, unspecified leading bits are set to zero and bits exceeding the field size are truncated on the left. The resulting composite integer is right-justified with leading bits set to zero.

The two's complement of any integer can be formed by preceding it with a minus sign (-).

Integers without a D (double) must be capable of fitting into 16 bits ( $-32,768_{10}$  to  $+32,767_{10}$ ). Double integers can range from  $-2147483648_{10}$  to  $+2147483647_{10}$ .

Care should be exercised when using blank as a delimiter in the specification of based integers. The based integer

`%(16)ABCD`

is not equivalent in size or value to the based integer

`%(16)ABC D.`

The blank inserted in the second case makes it type double.

#### *EXAMPLES:*

`<<decimal integer>>`

`123456`

`34`

`57`

`999`

`<<based integer>>`

`%1777 <<octal>>`

`%(2)101110111`

`%(11)1092A`

`%(16)A012`

`<<composite integers>>`

`[3/2, 12/%5252] <<equals %52524>>`

`[2/211, 15/[3/%(2)101, 12/0], 10/123] D`

`<<equals %720000173>>`

`<<integer>>`

`-12345`

`-%(2)1110010`

`-[3/2, 12/%5252]`

## REAL CONSTANTS

Real numbers can be either standard (32 bits) or long (48 bits). In both cases they consist of a signed magnitude (e.g., -1056) and a signed decimal power (e.g., E20, L-15). Standard real numbers are specified by a decimal point or an E before the exponent; long real numbers must always contain an L to distinguish them from standard real numbers.

### Syntax

```
<real number>          ::= <unsigned real number> | <sign> <unsigned real number>
<unsigned real number> ::= <fraction> | <decimal integer> E <power> |
                           <fraction> E <power> | <composite integer> E |
                           <based integer> E
<fraction>              ::= <decimal integer> . | . <digit> | <fraction> <digit>
<power>                 ::= <decimal integer> | <sign> <decimal integer>
<long real number>      ::= <unsigned long real number> |
                           <sign> <unsigned long real number>
<unsigned long real number> ::= <decimal integer> L <power> | <fraction> L <power> |
                           <composite integer> L | <based integer> L
<sign>                  ::= + | -
```

### Syntax References

```
<decimal integer>  → II,  INTEGER CONSTANTS
<composite integer> → II,  INTEGER CONSTANTS
<based integer>    → II,  INTEGER CONSTANTS
<digit>            → II,  INTEGER CONSTANTS
```

### Semantics

As shown in the syntax, the magnitude part of a real number can be a decimal fraction, a decimal integer, a composite integer, or a based integer and the power must be a decimal integer (with or without sign). Real and long real numbers are accurate to 6.9 decimal digits of magnitude and 11.7 digits respectively (0 can be represented exactly). The absolute value can range from  $8.6366 \times 10^{-78}$  to  $1.1579 \times 10^{77}$ .

When a composite or based integer is used, <power> does not follow the L or E. The bit pattern created for the integer is used directly as right-justified real number (it is not converted to floating point form). This construct is useful for creating special floating point constants such as the smallest positive number.

*EXAMPLES:*

<<real number>>

+1.324

-.1024

-1.105E-21

%(4)321000E

-%(2)111101111011E

[3/5, 5/273, 20/%(16)102AB39] E

<<long real number>>

9321.678975L72

-.111015L-27

%(8)3777777777L

## LOGICAL CONSTANTS

Logical constants are 16-bit positive integers. Hardware operations on logical values are defined for addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and comparison.

### Syntax

`<logical value> ::= TRUE | FALSE | <integer>`

### Syntax References

`<integer> → II, INTEGER CONSTANTS`

### Semantics

A logical value is considered true if its value is odd, false if its value is even (i.e., only the last bit is checked). When the reserved words TRUE and FALSE are used, they are equivalent to the integer values -1 (all ones) and 0 (all zeros) respectively. Since logical values are always assumed to be positive they range from  $0_{10}$  to  $+65,535_{10}$ . When negative integers are used as logical values they are interpreted as large positive numbers (e.g., -1 equals %177777).

## STRING CONSTANTS

A string constant is a sequence of one or more ASCII characters bounded by quote marks ("). Each character is converted to its 8-bit representation and the characters can be packed two per word.

### Syntax

```
<string>          ::= "<character string>"
<character string> ::= <character> | <character string> <character>
<character>       ::= { a member of the set of ASCII character representations }
```

### Syntax References

ASCII characters → Appendix, A

### Semantics

A character string can contain from 1 to 64 ASCII characters. A quote (") is represented within a character string by a pair of quotes (" ") to avoid ambiguity with the string terminator.

#### *EXAMPLE:*

```
<<string>>
  "THE CHARACTER" "IS A QUOTE MARK."
  "A NORMAL STRING WOULD LOOK LIKE THIS"
  "Lowercase letters are not UPSHIFTED in strings"
```



## IDENTIFIERS

Identifiers are symbols used to name data and code constructs in an SPL/3000 program. They consist of uppercase letters and numbers, and are assigned uses by declarations. There is no implicit typing assumed for identifiers.

### Syntax

<identifier>	::= <letter>   <identifier> <letter>   <identifier> <digit>   <identifier>'
<T simpvar identifier>	::= <T identifier>
<T identifier>	::= <identifier>
<T pointer identifier>	::= <identifier>
<T array identifier>	::= <identifier>
<procedure identifier>	::= <T proc identifier>   <proc identifier>
<T proc identifier>	::= <identifier>
<proc identifier>	::= <identifier>
<entry identifier>	::= <identifier>
<label identifier>	::= <identifier>
<switch identifier>	::= <identifier>
<equate identifier>	::= <identifier>
<define identifier>	::= <identifier>
<subroutine identifier>	::= <T subr identifier>   <subr identifier>
<T subr identifier>	::= <identifier>
<subr identifier>	::= <identifier>
<intrinsic identifier>	::= <identifier>
<letter>	::= A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
<digit>	::= 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

## Semantics

An identifier always starts with a letter and may contain from 1 to 15 contiguous characters (letters, digits, and apostrophes). Identifiers larger than 15 characters are truncated on the right (A123456789012345 = A12345678901234). Lowercase letters are allowed, but are always converted to uppercase form (Aabc = AABC). The attributes of an identifier are determined by a declaration, *not* by the form of the identifier (the syntax shows that all types of syntax identifiers have the same form).

Reserved words are combinations of characters that cannot be used as identifiers, since they are used with implied meanings in the language. (See Appendix B for a list of SPL/3000 reserved words.)

In the syntax, T is used as an abbreviation to indicate the following class of data types:

integer, logical, byte, real, long, double.

### EXAMPLE:

```
<<identifier>>  
  MATRIX  
  A'''B  
  AN'IDENTIFIER  
  MAT1  
  X
```

# ***SECTION III***

## ***Declarations***

### **DECLARATION TYPES**

A declaration defines the attributes of an identifier before it is used in a program or procedure. All identifiers in SPL/3000 (with the exception of labels) must be explicitly declared once, and only once, within a single program or procedure. There are two possible levels of declarations in SPL/3000: global, for a main program and local, for a procedure. Global declarations can be accessed throughout a program (even within procedures) and are grouped together at the beginning of the program. Local declarations can be accessed only within the procedure where declared and are grouped together at the beginning of the procedure body.

### **Syntax**

```
<data group>      ::= <data group> <data declaration> ; | <empty>
<data declaration> ::= <define declaration> |
                        † any order
                        <equate declaration> |
                        <global simpvar declaration> |
                        <global array declaration> |
                        <global pointer declaration> |
                        <label declaration> |
                        <switch declaration> |
                        <entry declaration>

<procedure group> ::= <procedure group> <subroutine declaration> ; |
                        <proc group>
                        † subroutines last

<proc group>      ::= <proc group> <procedure declaration> ; |
                        <proc group> <intrinsic declaration> ; |
                        <empty>
                        † any order

<subdata group>   ::= <subdata group> <subdata declaration> ; |
                        <subdata declaration> ; | <empty>
                        † subprogram compilations
```

```

<subdata declaration> ::= <define declaration> |
                           <equate declaration> |
                           <global simpvar declaration> |
                           <global array declaration> |
                           <global pointer declaration> |
                           <simpvar declaration> |
                           <pointer declaration> |
                           <array declaration>
                           † subdata declarations do not allocate global space

```

## Syntax References

These declaration types are described in this section.

```

<define declaration>
<equate declaration>
<simpvar declaration>
<array declaration>
<pointer declaration>
<label declaration>
<switch declaration>
<entry declaration>
<procedure declaration>
<intrinsic declaration>
<subroutine declaration>

```

## Semantics

As stated in Section I, “Program Structure,” the SPL/3000 compiler accepts either main program or procedure-only compilations. When procedures are compiled alone they must be linked up with some main program before they can be executed.

All data declarations (e.g., the data group) must occur before the procedure group. Within the data group, data declarations can occur in any order. But, in procedure-only compilations, any data declarations which imply storage locations must use address reference (see “Declaration Concepts”). New global locations are never directly allocated in procedure-only compilations.

After data declarations come procedures and intrinsic declarations, intermixed in any order. The global subroutine declarations occur last, but are only allowed in main program compilations.

Declarations can also occur within procedures. The declarations which are allowed locally are described under “Procedure Declaration.”

## DECLARATION CONCEPTS

Certain concepts are common to many declarations:

- Data Types
- Addressing Data
- Address Allocation
- Initialization
- GLOBAL-EXTERNAL Attribute
- Address Reference

### Data Types

A data type specification in a declaration defines the set of instructions which can operate on the item declared and the amount of storage its value will occupy. Six reserved words are used for type assignment:

INTEGER	Single precision positive and negative integer values, including zero. 16-bit, two's complement representation which can range from -32,768 to +32,767. Hardware provides addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, modulo, negation, and comparison. Software provides exponentiation.
REAL	Single precision positive and negative floating-point values, including zero. 32-bit sign plus magnitude representation with an absolute value that can range from $8.6366 \times 10^{-78}$ to $1.1579 \times 10^{+77}$ (zero can be represented exactly as a special case). Real numbers are accurate to 6.9 decimal digits of magnitude. Hardware provides addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, negation, and comparison. Software provides exponentiation.
DOUBLE	Double precision positive and negative integral values, including zero. 32-bit, two's complement representation which can range from -2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647. Hardware provides only addition, subtraction, comparison, and negation.
LONG	Extended precision positive and negative floating-point values, including zero. 48-bit sign plus magnitude representation with the same range as real, but with 11.7 decimal digits of accuracy. Hardware provides no operations; software provides addition, subtraction, division, multiplication, negation, comparison and exponentiation.
LOGICAL	Single precision positive integer values, including zero. 16-bit, positive binary representation which can range from 0 to +65,535. Hardware provides addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, modulo, or, and, exclusive or, comparison, and complement.

**BYTE** Half precision positive integer values, including zero. Eight-bit integral representation which can range from 0 to 255. When type byte is used in arithmetic operations, 16-bit integer arithmetic is performed on the top of the stack. If the result is stored in a *byte*, it is always truncated to an 8-bit integer (which must therefore be interpreted as positive, even if the 16-bit result was negative) and is stored in the left half unless indexed. Hardware provides moves, scans, and compares for strings of bytes.







## Addressing Data

Identifiers can be declared globally (e.g., in a main program) or locally (e.g., in a procedure). Global identifiers are recognized throughout the main program and all procedures (except that subroutines are recognized only in the main program). Local identifiers are recognized only within the procedure where they are declared. When a local identifier equals a global identifier, only the local identifier is recognized within the procedure.

Unless the programmer specifies otherwise, global data items are assigned DB-relative locations and local data items are assigned Q-relative locations. The programmer can override this assignment by asking that a global identifier be allocated Q relative or a local identifier DB-relative.

Data assigned DB-relative addresses or the index register can be addressed throughout the scope of the entire program. That is, the locations can be addressed in all cases, although the identifiers may not be recognized in some contexts. Data assigned Q-relative addresses can be addressed only within the scope of the Q-register setting corresponding to where they are declared. Data assigned S-relative addresses can be addressed consistently (i.e., the compiler corrects for changes in S) within a statement.

The address field of the memory reference instructions (bits 6 through 15) determines the range (in words) of each addressing mode:

	Bits										Range
	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
P + relative	0	0	Displacement 								8 bits (0:255)
P - relative	0	1	Displacement 								8 bits (0:255)
DB + relative	1	0	Displacement 								8 bits (0:255)
Q + relative	1	1	0	Displacement 							7 bits (0:127)
Q - relative	1	1	1	0	Displacement 						6 bits (0:63)
S - relative	1	1	1	1	Displacement 						6 bits (0:63)

## Address Allocation

When data identifiers are declared they are allocated addresses in the data stack. Normally, global identifiers are allocated the next available DB-relative locations and local identifiers are allocated the next available Q-relative locations. The number of locations allocated depends on the item being declared and its data type. It is also possible to assign data identifiers to specific relative locations (see "Address Reference"), thus overriding the normal default assignment.

## SIMPLE VARIABLES

A simple variable is allocated the next available locations relative to DB or Q. The number of locations allocated is

- One for integer, logical, or byte (actual byte data occupies bits 0 through 7 of word allocated).
- Two for double or real.
- Three for long.

For example, if the next available DB location is DB+7 and three global variables are declared (integer I, real R, and byte B), the following locations are allocated:

DB+7 <sub>8</sub>	integer I
DB+10 <sub>8</sub>	} real R
DB+11 <sub>8</sub>	
DB+12 <sub>8</sub>	byte B
DB+13 <sub>8</sub>	next available location

## POINTERS

Pointers are always allocated only one location, regardless of the data type. Thus if three local pointers (P1, P2, P3) are declared and the next available Q-relative location in that procedure is Q+3, then:

Q+3	pointer P1
Q+4	pointer P2
Q+5	pointer P3
Q+6	next available location

## INDIRECT ARRAYS

Normally, arrays are addressed indirectly through a data label (address). The data label is allocated the next available DB or Q location and the actual array storage is allocated either in the secondary DB (beyond the global variables) or on the top of the stack (beyond the local variables).

For dynamic local arrays, the data label is allocated the next available Q-relative location. When the procedure is entered, the upper and lower bounds are computed and the storage for the array is allocated on the top of the stack.

The quantity of space allocated for an array of  $N$  elements is dependent on its data type:

- $N$  words for an integer or logical array.
- 2 times  $N$  words for a double or real array.
- 3 times  $N$  words for a long array.
- $(N + 1)/2$  words for a byte array.

## DIRECT ARRAYS

SPL/3000 allows the programmer to specify that an array will be accessed directly (without going indirectly through a pointer). The total storage for a direct array is allocated starting with the next available DB or Q cell. There are certain restrictions on direct arrays based on the limited range of directly addressed locations.

### *EXAMPLES:*

Assume that the following declarations have been made:

#### Main Program:

An indirect integer array, A, ranging from 0 to 72.

An integer simple variable, I.

A double pointer, P.

A direct logical array, AA, ranging from 0 to 9.

#### Procedure PROC:

A local integer simple variable, X.

A local integer simple variable, Y.

An indirect local logical array, B, ranging from 0 to 7.

When procedure PROC is called and has set up its local storage, the data area appears as follows:



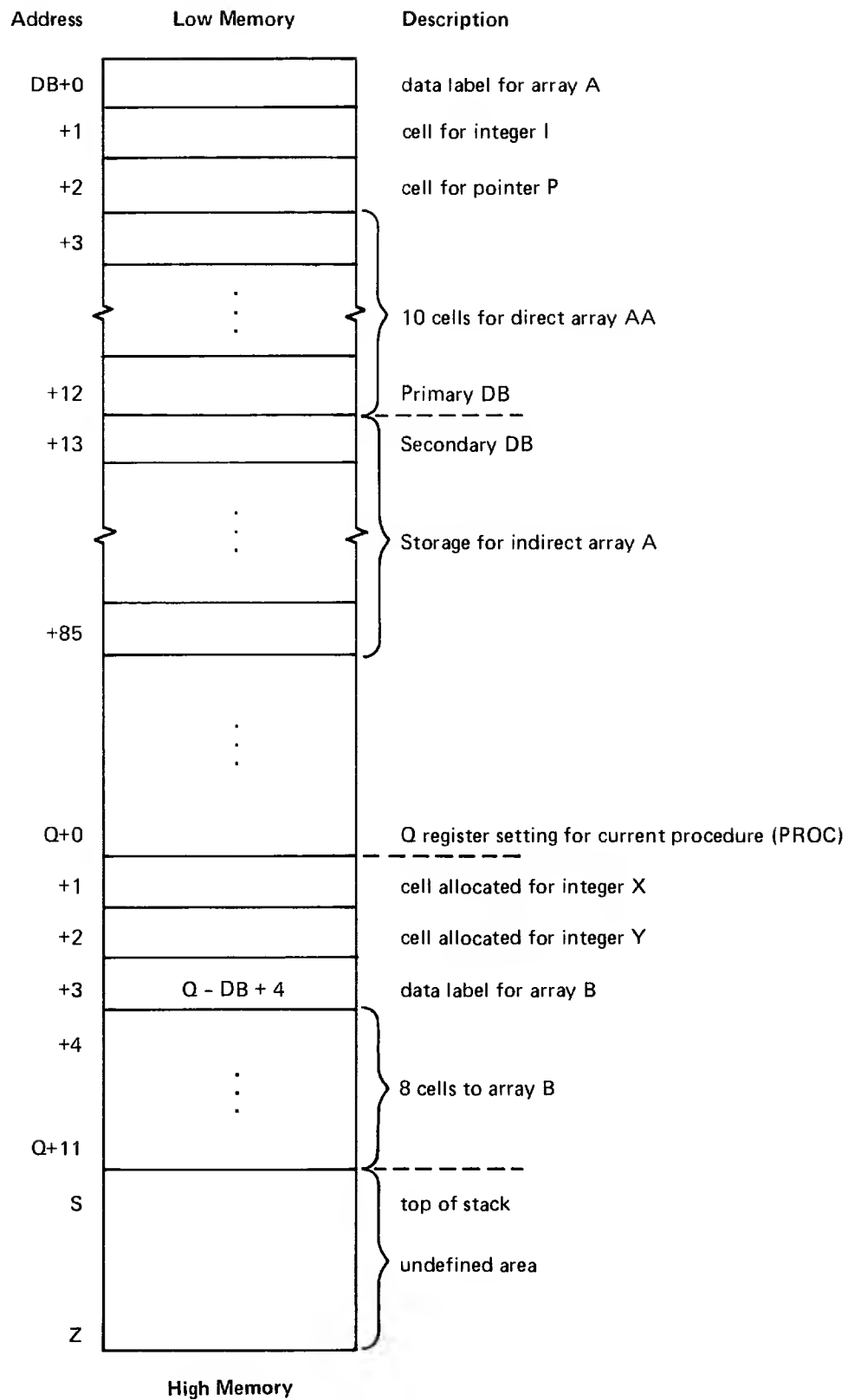


Figure 3-1. Example Data Area

## Initialization

Compile-time initialization of data items is allowed in SPL/3000 wherever possible.

Simple variables are initialized when declared by following the identifier with a `:=` and a constant of appropriate type. When execution of the program begins the variable has the initial value specified.

Pointers can be initialized with the addresses of other data items when they are declared.

The only arrays that can be initialized are global arrays, local OWN arrays, and local PB-relative arrays (all with defined bounds). The initialization consists of a list of constants separated by commas; repeat factors are allowed before lists of constants in parentheses to indicate that the list is to be repeated. Only the last array specified in a single array declaration list can be initialized.

Generally the constants used in initialization must match the data type of the variable being declared exactly. However, strings can be used to initialize any data type; bytes are used consecutively from the left. A remaining right byte, if any, is filled with a blank. In addition, variables declared type byte can be initialized with integer constants that fit in 8 bits (the constant is truncated on the left if too large and a warning is issued).

Local variables with initialization, except those declared OWN, are initialized every time the procedure is entered. Since OWN variables are allocated in the DB area they are initialized only once, before the start of the program.

## GLOBAL-EXTERNAL Attribute

When a procedure is compiled separately, it is necessary to take special steps to establish a DB-relative variable that can be recognized in both the procedure and the main program to which it will eventually be linked by the operating system. The GLOBAL-EXTERNAL mechanism is provided for this purpose.

When a local variable is declared EXTERNAL, the variable must be linked with a variable of the same identifier and type declared GLOBAL in a main program. The GLOBAL-EXTERNAL variable is allocated to specific DB-relative location when the operating system links the procedure with the main program. This location can then be accessed by both the procedure and the program using the same identifier.

## Address Reference

Address reference allows variables to be equivalenced to locations relative to other variables or the address registers. Generally, no storage is allocated when address reference is specified and these variables can never be initialized. There are three forms of address reference: variable reference, base register reference, and indexed identifier reference.

## VARIABLE REFERENCE

The data item is assigned the location and addressing convention of a referenced identifier, adjusted by a plus or minus number of words. The resulting address must be within the direct address ranges (see “Addressing Data,” this section).

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{identifier} \rangle &= \langle \text{identifier} \rangle | \\ &\quad \langle \text{identifier} \rangle \langle \text{sign} \rangle \langle \text{unsigned integer} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Assume the variable A has been assigned the location DB+5. If an integer simple variable B is declared with variable reference to a (B=A), then B is assigned location DB+5. If a pointer P is declared with variable reference to B+2 (P=B+2), then P is assigned DB+7. Variable reference is allowed with simple variables, pointers, and arrays (undefined bounds only).

## BASE REGISTER REFERENCE

The data item is assigned an address relative to one of the data register or equal to the index register.

$$\begin{array}{llll} \langle \text{identifier} \rangle & = & \text{DB} + & \langle \text{usi255} \rangle | \quad \dagger \text{ unsigned integer 255} \\ & & \text{Q} + & \langle \text{usi127} \rangle | \quad \dagger \text{ unsigned integer 127} \\ & & \text{Q} - & \langle \text{usi63} \rangle | \quad \dagger \text{ unsigned integer 63} \\ & & \text{S} - & \langle \text{usi63} \rangle | \quad \dagger \text{ unsigned integer 63} \\ & & \text{X} & \quad \dagger \text{ Index Register} \end{array}$$

Only simple variables of type integer, logical, or byte can be equivalenced to the index register. All variables thus equivalenced refer to one value, the current value of the index register. Since the index register is used in array indexing and other constructs, this value can change without explicit reference to an identifier equivalenced to the index register. The compiler does not save the value of any variables referenced to the index register; the programmer must maintain the integrity of these variables.

Simple variables and pointers of all types can be referenced to base register relative locations, but initialization is not allowed. If arrays are to be referenced to registers, they must have undefined bounds. If the undefined bounds specify an \*, the referenced location is treated as the zero element of a direct array. If the undefined bounds specifier is an @, the referenced location is treated as a data label for an indirect reference to the zero element of an indirect array.

## INDEXED IDENTIFIER REFERENCE

An array with undefined bounds (\*) can be equivalenced to the location of a previously declared array or pointer.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{identifier} \rangle &= \langle \text{array identifier} \rangle \langle \text{index} \rangle | \\ &\quad \langle \text{pointer identifier} \rangle \langle \text{index} \rangle \\ &\quad \dagger \langle \text{index} \rangle \text{ is optional; no } \langle \text{index} \rangle \text{ specifies the zero element} \end{aligned}$$

The referenced item specifies the zero element of the new array. If the reference is to the zero element and the referenced item is of compatible data label type (word or byte), then the data label location of the reference item is used as the data label of the new identifier. If the reference is to a direct array, the new array is direct also and no data label need be allocated.

However, if the reference is to other than the zero element, or the two items have different data label types (word versus byte), a location must be allocated for a new data label. These are the only cases in address referencing when storage is ever allocated.

For further details and examples, see “Array Declaration.”

## DEFINE DECLARATION AND INVOCATION

A define declaration assigns a block of text to an identifier. Whenever the identifier is used in the program thereafter, the assigned text replaces the identifier. This provides a convenient abbreviation mechanism to avoid repeating long constructs that are used many times throughout a program.

### Syntax

```
<define declaration> ::= DEFINE <definition list>
<definition>          ::= <define identifier> = <text> #
<define identifier>    ::= <identifier>
<text>                 ::= {any sequence of ASCII characters not including # except in a
                           string}
                           † symbols should make sense when inserted where the define
                           is invoked
<define invocation>    ::= <define identifier>
                           † anywhere except within an identifier, string, or comment
```

### Semantics

At declaration time a define has no effect on the compilation of the program. It has effect only in the context where it is invoked. For this reason, undeclared identifiers can appear in defines; they only need to have been declared when the define is invoked. Similarly, the define text is checked for syntax errors in the context where invoked, not where declared.

Define declarations can be nested (define identifiers can be used in other definitions), but they cannot be recursive (a define identifier appearing within its own text), since this leads to infinite nesting when the define is invoked.

The number sign (#) terminates a define text only if it is not contained in a string. For example, the string "ABCD#" is valid text (terminates on the second #). Incomplete comments cannot appear in DEFINES.

#### EXAMPLES:

```
DEFINE I = ARRAY B(0:1)#;
INTEGER I; <<INTEGER ARRAY B (0:1);>>
DEFINE SUM = A + B + C + D + E #;
J := SUM; <<J := A + B + C + D + E;>>
```

## EQUATE DECLARATION AND INVOCATION

An equate declaration assigns an integer value (determined by an expression of integer constants and other equates) to an identifier. The equate mechanism is only a documentation and maintenance convenience; it does not allocate any storage, but merely provides a form of consistent identification for constants. When an equate identifier is used, the appropriate constant is substituted in its place. When equates are used instead of actual constants, programs can be updated easily; instead of replacing every occurrence of a constant, only the equate declaration is changed.

### Syntax

```
<equate declaration> ::= EQUATE <equate list>
<equate>                ::= <equate identifier> = <equate expression>
<equate identifier>     ::= <identifier>
<equate expression>    ::= <sign> <equate term> |
                           † lowest precedence
                           <equate term> |
                           <equate expression> <addop> <equate term>

<equate term>          ::= <equate term> <muldiv> <equate primary> | <equate primary>
<equate primary>      ::= <unsigned integer> |
                           † highest precedence
                           <equate identifier> |
                           (<equate expression>)

<sign>                 ::= +|-
<addop>                 ::= +|-
<muldiv>                ::= */
<equate invocation>    ::= <equate identifier>
                           † anywhere that an integer constant is allowed
```

### Syntax References

<unsigned integer>    →    II, INTEGER CONSTANTS

### Semantics

The value to be assigned to an equate identifier is determined by an equate expression. Equate expressions consist of operators (\*, /, +, -), unsigned integers, previously-defined equates, and parentheses. Evaluation of the expression proceeds from left to right, except that multiplication and division (\*, /) are done before addition and subtraction (+, -) and expressions in parentheses are done before the operators that surround them. Since equate identifiers can be used in equate expressions, a series of related equate declarations can be set up such that changing only the first changes all the rest.

Equate identifiers can be used anywhere in the program that an integer or unsigned integer constant is allowed. Equate declarations are allowed globally and locally.

*EXAMPLE:*

EQUATE M = 1, N = M+1, P = N+1;

EQUATE T=20\*P/(20-P+M);

J := 136 \* T;

<<M=1, N=2, P=3, T=3, J=408>>

## SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION

A simple variable declaration specifies the type, addressing mode, storage allocation, and form of initialization for identifiers to be used as single data items. The type assigned a variable determines the amount of space allocated to the variable and the set of HP 3000 instructions which can operate on the variable.

### Syntax

```
<global simpvar declaration> ::= <global attribute> <type> <var dec list>
<global attribute>           ::= GLOBAL | <empty>
                               † linkage for external procedures
<local simpvar declaration> ::= OWN <type> <nonref var dec list> |
                               EXTERNAL <type> <T simpvar identifier list> |
                               † linkage to main programs compiled separately
                               <type> <var dec list>
<type>                       ::= INTEGER | LOGICAL | BYTE |
                               DOUBLE | REAL | LONG
<var dec>                    ::= <T simpvar identifier> <var reference> |
                               <T simpvar identifier> = X |
                               † equivalenced to the index register; integer, logical,
                               byte only
                               <T simpvar identifier> <simpvar init>
<nonref var dec>             ::= <T simpvar identifier> <simpvar init>
<T simpvar identifier>       ::= <T identifier>
<T identifier>               ::= <identifier>
<var reference>              ::= <empty> |
                               † allocated next DB or Q cell
                               = <T data identifier> |
                               † address reference
                               = <T data identifier> <sign> <usi> |
                               <base register reference>
<T data identifier>          ::= <T simpvar identifier> |
                               <T array identifier> |
                               <T pointer identifier>
<base register reference>    ::= DB + <usi> |
                               † 0 to 255
                               Q + <usi> |
                               † 0 to 127
                               Q - <usi> |
                               † 0 to 63
                               S - <usi>
                               † 0 to 63
<usi>                        ::= <unsigned integer>
<simpvar init>               ::= <empty> |
                               † not initialized
                               ::= <initial value>
<initial value>              ::= <constant>
                               † truncated on left if too large
```



## Syntax References

<array>     →   III,  ARRAY DECLARATION  
<pointer>   →   III,  POINTER DECLARATION  
<constant> →   II,   CONSTANT TYPES

## Semantics

All of the topics discussed under “Declaration Concepts” apply to some extent in the declarations of simple variables; refer to the appropriate portions of that discussion for general information on data type, address assignment, initialization, GLOBAL-EXTERNAL, variable reference, and register reference.

Simple variables can be declared globally or locally. An OWN option is available for local variables. The OWN option specifies that, although the identifier is to be recognized only locally, the storage for the variable is to be allocated in the primary DB area (the global area). This storage provides the procedure with a local variable which is not deleted when the procedure exits.

Simple variables which are address referenced to arrays are assigned either the data label location of the array (if indirect); or the zero element of the array adjusted by the word offset specified (if direct). In any case, the final address must be within the direct address range.

### EXAMPLE:

```
BEGIN <<global declarations>>
  INTEGER I,J := 1245;
  DOUBLE IL := -1234579D;
  REAL A,B,C := 1.321 E-21,
    Z = DB+3;
  LOGICAL INDX = X, LI = I, JI = J;
  GLOBAL BYTE B1 := “$”;
PROCEDURE PROC; <<local declarations>>
  BEGIN
    INTEGER I; <<overrides global I>>
    OWN REAL R;
    LOGICAL QP = Q-3;
    INTEGER TS = S-0;
    LONG LN := 124.0 L-25;
    LOGICAL L9 := TRUE;
    .
    .
    .
  END;
  .
  .
  .
END.
```

## ARRAY DECLARATION

An array declaration specifies one or more identifiers to represent arrays of subscripted variables. An array is a block of contiguous storage which is treated as an ordered sequence of “variables” having the same data type. Each “variable” or element of the array is denoted by a unique subscript (SPL/3000 provides one-dimensional arrays only — one subscript or index, not a pair or more). An array declaration defines the following attributes of an array:

- The bounds specification (if any) which determines the size of the array and the legitimate range of indexing.
- The data type of the array elements.
- The storage allocation method.
- The initial values, if desired.
- The access mode (direct or indirect).

### Syntax

```
<global array declaration> ::= <atype> ARRAY <g-array dec list> |  
                                GLOBAL <atype> ARRAY <G-dec list>  
                                † linkage to external procedures  
  
<local array declaration> ::= <atype> ARRAY <l-array dec list> |  
                                EXTERNAL <atype> ARRAY <E-dec list> |  
                                OWN <atype> ARRAY <own array dec list>  
  
<atype> ::= <type> |  
            <empty>  
            † LOGICAL assumed  
  
<type> ::= INTEGER | LOGICAL | BYTE  
            DOUBLE | REAL | LONG  
  
<G-dec> ::= <T array identifier> (<db>) = DB <array init> |  
            † direct array, defined bounds, can be initialized  
            <T array identifier> (*) = DB |  
            † direct array, no bounds, user next cell as zero element  
            <T array identifier> (@) = DB |  
            † indirect array, no bounds, uses next cell as pointer to  
            zero element  
            <T array identifier> (<db>) <array init>  
            † indirect array, defined bounds  
  
<g-array dec> ::= <G-dec> |  
            <T array identifier> (@) <indirect base register reference> |  
            † indirect  
            <T array identifier> (<udb>) <reference part>  
            † direct or equivalenced  
  
<T array identifier> ::= <identifier>  
  
<db> ::= <integer> : <integer>  
            † defined bounds
```

<udb>	::= *
	† undefined bounds
<E-dec>	::= <T array identifier> (<udb>)   <T array identifier> (@)
	† EXTERNAL linkage to main program compiled separately. * = direct, @ = indirect
<I-array dec>	::= <T array identifier> (<db>) = Q <array init>
	† direct array, defined bounds, can be initialized
	<T array identifier> (*) = Q
	† direct array, no bounds, uses next cell as zero element
	<T array identifier> (@) = Q
	† indirect array, no bounds, uses next cell as pointer to zero element
	<T array identifier> (<db>)
	† indirect array
	<T array identifier> (<db>) = PB := <listelmt>
	† P-relative array of constants
	<T array identifier> (<vb>)
	† dynamic array
	<T array identifier> (<udb>) <reference part>
	† equivalenced array or direct (base register reference)
	<T array identifier> (@) <indirect base register reference>
	† indirect array
<own array dec>	::= <T array identifier> (<db>) <array init>
<vb>	::= <T <sub>ilb</sub> simpvar identifier> : <T <sub>ilb</sub> simpvar identifier>
	† variable bounds
<reference part>	::= <var reference>
	= <indexed ident reference>
<indexed ident reference>	::= <T array identifier>
	† zero element
	<T pointer identifier>
	† zero element
	<T array identifier> (<integer>)
	<T pointer identifier> (<integer>)
<array init>	::= <listelmt>
	<empty>
<listelmt>	::= <initial value>
	<decimal integer> (<initial value list>)
	† repeat factor allowed
	<listelmt list>
	† one level deep only
	† no nesting
<initial value>	::= <constant>
	† truncated on left if too large; assigned one constant per element except that strings are used completely from left to right
<var reference>	::= <empty>
	† allocates next DB or Q cell as pointer cell; ARRAY A (*) is equivalent to ARRAY A (@)
	= <T data identifier>
	† address reference
	= <T data identifier> <sign> <usi>
	<base register reference>

<T data identifier>	::= <T simpvar identifier>   <T array identifier>   <T pointer identifier>
<sign>	::= + -
<indirect base register reference>	::= <empty>   ‡ allocates next DB or Q cell as pointer to zero element = <base register reference>
<base register reference>	::= DB + <usi>   ‡ 0 to 255 Q + <usi>   ‡ 0 to 127 Q - <usi>   ‡ 0 to 63 S - <usi>   ‡ 0 to 63
<usi>	::= <unsigned integer>
<initial value>	::= <constant>

## Syntax References

<simpvar>	→ III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION
<pointer>	→ III, POINTER DECLARATION
<constants>	→ II, CONSTANT TYPES
<unsigned integer>	→ II, INTEGER CONSTANTS

## Semantics

All of the topics discussed under “Declaration Concepts” apply to some extent in the declaration of arrays; refer to the appropriate portions of that discussion for general information on data types, address assignment, initialization, GLOBAL-EXTERNAL, variable reference, and indexed identifier reference.

Arrays can be declared globally or locally. Only global arrays can be declared with attribute GLOBAL or with directly addressed storage in the DB area. Only local arrays can be declared with attribute EXTERNAL, with variable bounds, with direct addressing in the Q area, PB relative, or OWN. Run-time bounds checking is not provided in SPL/3000.

Local OWN arrays are allocated space in the DB area and thus are not deleted when a procedure exists. A Q-relative data label pointing to the array is established each time the procedure is entered. An OWN array can be accessed only by the procedure where it is declared or by procedures to which the declaring procedure has passed it as a parameter.

When arrays are accessed, an index is specified which determines the element desired. The index register is used in accessing index arrays and pointers. See “Variables” in Section IV.

## BOUNDS SPECIFICATION

Bounds specification can be defined, undefined, or variable (local only). Defined bounds consist of a pair of integer constants; the first integer is the lower bound (lowest element subscript) and the second is the upper bound (highest element subscript). The lower must be less than or equal to the upper and the number of elements in the array is determined by subtracting lower from upper and adding 1. Although all array references are relative to the zero element, zero need not be included in the defined bounds of the array.

### *EXAMPLE:*

```
INTEGER ARRAY DONE (-100 : 100),  
                      START (-100 : -50);  
REAL ARRAY    RVAL (0 : 20);  
DOUBLE ARRAY  DVAL (20 : 200);
```

Undefined bounds are specified by an \* if a direct or equivalenced array is desired, or by a @ if an indirect array is desired. Arrays with undefined bounds are not allocated any space; they must reuse storage allocated to other variables. An exception is when an array with undefined bounds is not equivalenced (<empty> reference), this case always allocates the next location as an indirect cell, whether the bounds specifier is @ or \*.

### *EXAMPLE:*

```
INTEGER ARRAY UNDEFINED (*) = DONE,  
              INDIRECT (@) = START;
```

Variable bounds are allowed in local arrays. The bounds are specified by a pair of global simple variables or simple variable parameters of type integer, logical, or byte. The first must be less than the second each time they are evaluated. These bounds are calculated once each time the array is called.

### *EXAMPLE:*

```
PROCEDURE PROC (A,B); INTEGER A,B;  
  BEGIN ARRAY LOCVALUE (A:B);  
    .  
    .  
    .  
    .  
  END;
```

## DATA TYPES

Arrays of all data types are allowed in SPL/3000. If a data type is not specified, type LOGICAL is assumed.

## STORAGE ALLOCATION

Only arrays with defined bounds are allocated space for elements. Global arrays are allocated space relative to DB and local arrays relative to Q. Local OWN arrays are allocated space relative to DB and arrays specified P relative (=PB) are allocated space in the code segment (these arrays cannot be modified during execution and must be fully initialized at compile-time). Local arrays with variable bounds are allocated space on the top of the stack each time the procedure is entered.

Data label locations are normally allocated only for indirect arrays with defined bounds. However, if an indirect array is declared with undefined bounds and no address reference (ARRAY L(@) or ARRAY L(\*)), then the next available DB or Q location is allocated to it as a data label which can be filled with an address by the program during execution. Also, if an array is referenced to an indexed identifier a new data label location is required if the two items do not match in data label type or if the reference is to other than the zero element.

### EXAMPLE:

```
REAL ARRAY R(0 : 10);  
REAL ARRAY R2(@); REAL ARRAY R1(*);  
INTEGER ARRAY I (*) = R(5);  
BYTE ARRAY B(*) = R;
```

## INITIALIZATION

Only arrays with defined bounds can be initialized and local PB arrays *must* be fully initialized. Initialization consists of a := followed by a list of numerical constants or strings. A group of constants can be surrounded by parentheses and preceded by a decimal repetition factor (*N*) to specify that the constants in parentheses are to be used *N* times in initializing the array before going onto the next item in the list. These repeat groups cannot be nested. Elements are initialized starting with the lowest subscript and continuing up until the constant list is exhausted. There is no default value for uninitialized variables.

### EXAMPLE:

```
INTEGER ARRAY N(1 : 10) := 10,9,8,7,6,5,4,3,2,1;  
LOGICAL ARRAY M(0 : 5) := "ABCDEFGHijkl";  
REAL ARRAY TEST(10:20) := 0.0, 10(1.0);
```

## DIRECT/INDIRECT

Arrays can be direct or indirect. A direct array is always accessed without going through a data label; therefore, its zero element must be within the direct address range. Indirect arrays are accessed by referring indirectly through a data label; the data label must be in a directly addressed location, but the storage for the elements can be elsewhere (secondary DB or top of the stack).

Indirect arrays are the default type for arrays with defined bounds such as

```
INTEGER ARRAY A(0 : 20);
```

If this array is to be direct, the programmer must specify =DB (global only) or =Q (local only) after the bounds:

```

INTEGER ARRAY A(0 : 20) = DB;
PROCEDURE PROC:
    BEGIN
        INTEGER ARRAY A(0 : 20) = Q;
    END;

```

If the bounds specifier is \* (ARRAY L(\*) = DB or ARRAY L(\*) = Q, the zero element of the array is the next available location, but this location is not allocated. If the bounds specifier is @, the array is indirect and the next location is used as the pointer to the zero element of the array, but this location is not allocated.

For direct arrays with defined bounds, the zero element (if there is one) must fall within the directly addressed range, assuming that the array storage is allocated starting with the next available location.

With undefined bounds the direction must be specified explicitly. An @ bounds specifier indicates that an indirect array is desired. If there is no reference part, the compiler allocates the next available location as the data label for the array.

```

INTEGER ARRAY NUMB (@); <<ALLOCATES NEXT CELL>>
ARRAY TRUTH (@) = DB+7;

```

An \* bounds specifier indicates that a direct or equivalenced array is desired. If there is no reference part, the next available location is allocated as an indirect cell just as @ does. If register reference is used, the referenced address is the zero element of the direct array. If variable reference or indexed identifier reference is used, the array takes its direction from the referenced item which is also the zero element. If the referenced item is a direct array or variable the array is direct. If the referenced item is an indirect array or a pointer the array is indirect.

```

INTEGER ARRAY A(0 : 10),    <<INDIRECT>>
                           B(0 : 10) = DB;<<DIRECT>>
LOGICAL ARRAY L(*) = A,    <<INDIRECT>>
                           LM(*) = B,    <<INDIRECT>>
                           LN(*);    <<INDIRECT: NEXT CELL IS
                                   ALLOCATED AS POINTER>>
INTEGER D;    <<ZERO ELEMENT OF LN>>

```

## POINTER DECLARATION

A pointer declaration defines an identifier as a “pointer” — a single-word quantity used to contain a DB-relative address. The address points to another data item — the object of the pointer. A pointer declaration defines the following attributes of a pointer:

- The data type.
- The storage allocation method.
- The initial address to be stored in the pointer.

When the pointer is accessed the object is accessed indirectly through the pointer address. The object is assumed to be (or treated as if it were) the type of the pointer.

### Syntax

```
<global pointer declaration> ::= <global attribute> <atype> POINTER <pointer dec list>
<local pointer declaration> ::= <atype> POINTER <pointer dec list> |
                                OWN <atype> POINTER <T pointer identifier list> |
                                EXTERNAL <atype> POINTER <T pointer identifier list>
                                † linkage to main program compiled separately
<pointer dec>                 ::= <T pointer identifier> <pointer init> |
                                † allocated next DB or Q cell
                                <T pointer identifier> <var reference>
<T pointer identifier>        ::= <identifier>
<pointer init>                ::= :=@ <address specification> |
                                <empty>
                                † not initialized
<address specification>       ::= <T simpvar identifier> |
                                † initialization
                                <indexed ident reference>
<indexed ident reference>     ::= <T array identifier> |
                                † zero element
                                <T pointer identifier> |
                                † zero element
                                <T array identifier> (<integer>) |
                                <T pointer identifier> (<integer>)
<global attribute>           ::= GLOBAL |
                                † linkage to external procedures
                                <empty>
<atype>                       ::= <type> |
                                <empty>
                                † LOGICAL assumed
<type>                        ::= INTEGER | LOGICAL | BYTE |
                                DOUBLE | REAL | LONG
```



<b>&lt;var reference&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;empty&gt;</b>   † allocated next DB or Q cell <b>=&lt;T data identifier&gt;</b>   † address reference <b>=&lt;T data identifier&gt; &lt;sign&gt; &lt;usi&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;base register reference&gt;</b>
<b>&lt;T data identifier&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;T simpvar identifier&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;T array identifier&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;T pointer identifier&gt;</b>
<b>&lt;sign&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>+ -</b>
<b>&lt;usi&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;unsigned integer&gt;</b>
<b>&lt;base register reference&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>DB + &lt;usi&gt;</b>   † 0 to 255 <b>Q + &lt;usi&gt;</b>   † 0 to 127 <b>Q - &lt;usi&gt;</b>   † 0 to 63 <b>S - &lt;usi&gt;</b> † 0 to 63

## Syntax References

<b>&lt;array&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III,   ARRAY DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;simpvar&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III,   SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;integer&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>II,    INTEGER CONSTANTS</b>

## Semantics

Many of the topics discussed under “Declaration Concepts” apply to some extent in the declaration of pointers. The reader should refer to the relevant portions of that discussion for general information on data types, address assignment, GLOBAL-EXTERNAL, variable reference, and register reference.

OWN pointers are allocated an address in the DB area but are recognized only in the procedure where declared. Pointers are initialized with addresses of other variables, not constants. The method is to follow the pointer by := and @ and a data reference (simple variable, pointer element, or array element). The address of the specified data item (adjusted to the address mode of the pointer) is stored in the cell allocated for the pointer.

```

ARRAY LOG(0:10);
POINTER P := @LOG(5);

```

See “Variables” in Section V for methods of referring to and through pointers. Pointers can be indexed like arrays and can contain word or byte data labels.

## DATA TYPE

Pointers can be declared with all data types; if no type is specified, type LOGICAL is assumed. The type determines what data type the object of the pointer is assumed to have. This allows objects declared with one type to be accessed as another data type by accessing them through pointers.

## STORAGE ALLOCATION

Pointers which are not address referenced are allocated the next available DB (global) or Q (local) location and can be initialized. Pointers which are referenced use the address of the referenced item or the specified register relative location and cannot be initialized.

### *EXAMPLE:*

```
INTEGER A; LOGICAL B;  
BYTE POINTER P := @A;  
INTEGER ARRAY N(0:10);  
INTEGER POINTER PN := @N(5);  
POINTER P3 = DB+2, P4, P5 := @A, P6 := @B;
```

## **LABEL DECLARATION**

A label declaration specifies that an identifier will be used in the program as a label (to identify a statement). Labels are referenced when it is necessary to transfer control to a specific statement within the program. In SPL/3000, labels can be declared implicitly when used to label a statement; they need not be declared explicitly unless the programmer wishes.

### **Syntax**

```
<label declaration> ::= LABEL <label identifier list>
<label identifier>  ::= <identifier>
```

### **Semantics**

Labels are used to identify statements as follows:

```
LABEL L1;
      .
      .
      .
L1: A := B;
```

The syntax for labeled statements is given under “Statement Types” in Section V. In SPL/3000 a label implicitly declares itself when it is used to identify a statement or as the object of a GOTO statement or in a switch declaration. It need not be explicitly declared in a label declaration except as desired for documentation purposes. See “Go Statement,” Section V and “Switch Declaration,” Section III for uses of labels.

## SWITCH DECLARATION

A switch declaration relates an identifier to an ordered set of labels. The switch is accessed as a computed (or indexed) GO TO statement. The purpose of a switch is to allow selective transfer of control to any of the statements identified by the labels in the switch declaration.

### Syntax

```
<switch declaration> ::= SWITCH <switch identifier> := <label identifier list>
<switch identifier>   ::= <identifier>
<label identifier>    ::= <identifier>
                        † implicit label declaration
```

### Semantics

Only one switch identifier can be declared in each switch declaration. Associated with each label in the label list (from left to right) is an ordinal integer from 0 to  $N-1$  (where  $N$  is the number of labels in the list). This number indicates the position of the label in the list. When the switch is invoked (see “Go Statement,” Section V), the value of an integer subscript determines which label is selected from the list. Bounds checking in this selection is optional. Entry points are not allowed in SWITCH. Switch labels may not occur in subroutines.

#### *EXAMPLE:*

```
SWITCH SW := L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9;
SWITCH ERROR 'SELECT := ERR1, ERR2, ERR3, ERR4, ERR5, ERR6;
```

## ENTRY DECLARATION

The purpose of an entry declaration is to specify multiple entry points to a procedure or main program (beyond the implicit entry point—the first statement of the program or procedure body). Each entry identifier must occur somewhere in the body as a statement label, but cannot be the object of a GOTO.

### Syntax

```
<entry declaration>  ::= ENTRY <entry identifier list>
<entry identifier>   ::= <identifier>
```

### Semantics

An entry declaration for a procedure is equivalent to another name for the procedure that can be called with the same formal parameters, but begins execution of the procedure at a point other than the natural beginning of the procedure. Local variables are set up and initialized regardless of which entry point is used.

Programs can also have multiple entry points. By specifying the entry point to the operating system the program can be started at other than its natural beginning.

#### *EXAMPLE:*

```
BEGIN ENTRY P1, P2, P3;
    .
    .
    P1: A := 100;
    .
    .
    P2: A := 200;
    .
    .
    P3: A := 300;
    .
    .
END.

REAL PROCEDURE F(X); VALUE X; REAL X;
BEGIN REAL Y := 1.354, Z := 1.0 E-5;
    ENTRY F1, F2;
    F := Y*X+Z; <<entry point for F>>
    RETURN;
    F1 : TOS := Y*X; <<entry point for F1>>
    GOTO L1;
    F2 : IF X<0.0 THEN <<entry point for F2>>
        TOS := Y+X ELSE TOS := 0.0;
    L1 : F := TOS;
END <<F, F1, F2>>;
```

## PROCEDURE DECLARATION

A procedure declaration defines an identifier as a procedure and specifies what attributes the procedure will have:

- Data type of result for function procedures.
- Type and number of formal parameters.
- Options (external body, variable number of parameters, etc.).
- Local variables.
- Statements of the procedure body.

Procedures are called by means of the identifier and a list of actual parameters. Procedure declarations are not allowed within other procedures unless they are declared without body (i.e., optional external).

## Syntax

<procedure declaration>	::=	<ctype> PROCEDURE <proc head> <proc body>
<ctype>	::=	<type>   † determines data type of function <empty> † non-function procedure
<type>	::=	INTEGER   LOGICAL   BYTE   DOUBLE   REAL   LONG
<proc head>	::=	<procedure identifier> <formal part> <option part>   <procedure identifier> ; <option part> † no parameters
<procedure identifier>	::=	<T proc identifier>   † typed or not <proc identifier>
<proc identifier>	::=	<identifier>
<formal part>	::=	(<formal param list>) ; <value part> <specification part>
<formal param>	::=	<identifier> † defined only within procedure
<value part>	::=	VALUE <identifier list> ;   † formal params <empty> † those formal params not mentioned in <part value> are passed by reference
<specification part>	::=	<specification> ;   † specify types of formal params <specification part> <specification> ;

<b>&lt;specification&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;type&gt;</b> <b>&lt;identifier list&gt;</b>   † simple variables <b>&lt;atype&gt;</b> <b>ARRAY</b> <b>&lt;identifier&gt;</b>   † array <b>LABEL</b> <b>&lt;identifier list&gt;</b>   † labels <b>&lt;atype&gt;</b> <b>POINTER</b> <b>&lt;identifier list&gt;</b>   † pointers <b>&lt;atype&gt;</b> <b>PROCEDURE</b> <b>&lt;identifier list&gt;</b> † procedures — no parameter checking
<b>&lt;atype&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;type&gt;</b>   † determines data type of parameter <b>&lt;empty&gt;</b> † LOGICAL assumed
<b>&lt;option part&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>OPTION</b> <b>&lt;option list&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;empty&gt;</b>
<b>&lt;option&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>UNCALLABLE</b>   <b>PRIVILEGED</b>   <b>EXTERNAL</b>   <b>CHECK</b> {unsigned integer from 0 to 3}  <b>VARIABLE</b>   <b>FORWARD</b>   <b>INTERRUPT</b>   † see MPE/3000 documentation on external interrupt procedures <b>INTERNAL</b>
<b>&lt;proc body&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;statement&gt;</b>   <b>BEGIN</b> <b>&lt;proc data group&gt;</b> <b>&lt;procedure group&gt;</b> <b>&lt;compound tail&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;empty&gt;</b> † no body when option EXTERNAL, FORWARD
<b>&lt;proc data group&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;empty&gt;</b>   † local declarations <b>&lt;proc data group&gt;</b> <b>&lt;proc data declaration&gt;</b> ;   <b>&lt;proc data declaration&gt;</b> ;
<b>&lt;proc data declaration&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;define declaration&gt;</b>   † any order <b>&lt;equate declaration&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;local simpvar declaration&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;local array declaration&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;local pointer declaration&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;label declaration&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;switch declaration&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;entry declaration&gt;</b>
<b>&lt;procedure group&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;procedure group&gt;</b> <b>&lt;subroutine declaration&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;proc group&gt;</b> † subroutines last

<b>&lt;proc group&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;proc group&gt; &lt;procedure declaration&gt; ;  </b> <b>† EXTERNAL procedures only</b> <b>&lt;proc group&gt; &lt;intrinsic declaration&gt; ;  </b> <b>&lt;empty&gt;</b> <b>† any order</b>
<b>&lt;compound tail&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;statement&gt; END  </b> <b>&lt;statement&gt; ; &lt;compound tail&gt;</b>

## Syntax References

<b>&lt;statement&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>V, STATEMENT TYPES</b>
<b>&lt;define&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, DEFINE DECLARATION AND INVOCATION</b>
<b>&lt;equate&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, EQUATE DECLARATION AND INVOCATION</b>
<b>&lt;local simpvar&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;local array&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, ARRAY DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;local pointer&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, POINTER DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;label&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, LABEL DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;switch&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, SWITCH DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;entry&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, ENTRY DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;subroutine&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, SUBROUTINE DECLARATION</b>
<b>&lt;intrinsic&gt;</b>	<b>→</b>	<b>III, INTRINSIC DECLARATION</b>

## Semantics

A procedure is a self-contained section of code which is called to perform a function. Procedures are very hardware-dependent in SPL/3000; they are called using the PCAL instruction and return using the EXIT instruction; the PRIVILEGED and UNCALLABLE options are hardware-defined and checked; and local variables can be allocated relative to the Q register since it is set to a fresh area of the stack by the PCAL instruction. Because of the hardware capability provided for procedures, they can be called recursively (i.e., a procedure can call itself). For the syntax and semantics of calling procedures see “Function Designator,” Section IV and “Procedure Call Statement,” Section V. Multiple entry points for procedures are covered under “Entry Declaration,” this section.

### DATA TYPE

If a data type is specified for a procedure, that procedure is a function and can be called within expressions. It returns a value of the type specified by assigning the value to its name somewhere within the procedure body in an assignment statement. For details on calling functions, see “Function Designator,” Section IV.

If a data type is not specified, the procedure does not return a value and cannot be called as a function.



## PARAMETERS

The formal parameters (if any) of a procedure must be fully specified as to type and whether each is by value or by reference. The formal parameters can then be used within the procedure body as if they were locally declared identifiers. When the procedure is called, an actual parameter is supplied for each dummy or formal parameter.

Simple variables, arrays, labels, pointers, and procedures can be passed as parameters. Simple variables and pointers can be passed by value or reference; procedures, labels, and arrays are passed by reference only.

The VALUE list specifies which parameters are to be passed by value; parameters not listed in the VALUE list are passed by reference. When a parameter is called by value, the value of the actual parameter is specified by an expression and is loaded onto the stack. Value parameters are handled exactly as local variables from that point on; any changes to them are limited to the scope of the procedure. For reference parameters, the address of the parameter is loaded onto the stack instead of a value; changes to reference parameters can change the value of the actual parameter outside the procedure.

The VARIABLE option allows a variable number of parameters to be passed (see “Options,” below).

Actual parameters (when the procedure is called) can be constants, expressions, simple variables, array references, pointer references, procedure identifiers, label identifiers, or stacked values (\* in place of a parameter indicates that the parameter value or address has been loaded by the user; see “Procedure Call Statement,” Section V, for details).

If the formal parameter is a simple variable, it is passed the address (by reference) or actual value (by VALUE) of a data item. If the formal parameter is an array, it is passed the address of the zero element (thus, all arrays — even direct arrays — are effectively passed as indirect arrays). If the formal parameter is a pointer, it is passed the address (by reference) or contents (by VALUE) of a pointer.

Table 3-1 shows what actual parameters can be passed to what formal parameters (a blank space is an error condition):

**Table 3-1. Parameters Passed to Formal Parameters**

Actual Parameter	Formal Parameter						
	Simple Variables By Reference	Simple Variables By Value	Arrays	Pointer By Reference	Pointer By Value	Procedures	Labels
Constant	Warning (uses 1 word as address)	Must be same word size.	Warning (uses 1 word as address)	Warning (uses 1 word as address)	Warning (uses 1 word as address)		
Expression		Must be same word size.					
Simple Variable Identifier	OK	Must be same word size.	OK, loads address of simple variable		OK, load address of simple variable		
Array Reference	OK	Must be same word size.	OK		OK		
Pointer Reference	OK	Must be same word size.	OK	OK	OK		
Procedure Identifier						OK	
Label Identifier							OK
* (stacked)	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	

## OPTIONS

The option part of a procedure declaration consists of the reserved word **OPTION** followed by a list of option words separated by commas and terminated by a semi-colon. The meaning of the various options is as follows:

### UNCALLABLE

This option causes the “uncallable” bit to be turned on in the segment transfer table entry for the procedure. Uncallable procedures can only be called by code executing in privileged mode. If this option is not specified, the procedure is callable.

### PRIVILEGED

This option causes the procedure to be run in privileged mode, assuming the person running the program is allowed to execute in privileged mode by the operating system. If this option is not specified, the procedure runs in user mode.

### EXTERNAL

This option specifies that the procedure body (or code) exists external to the program being compiled. The procedure body is deleted from the rest of the declaration and is linked to the main program later by the operating system. If the programmer needs to refer to a procedure compiled separately, he must include an **OPTION EXTERNAL** declaration for the procedure which indicates to the compiler the type and number of parameters. Ininsics are the only procedures not requiring a procedure declaration (see “Intrinsic Declaration,” this section). When procedures are compiled separately (to be called later as option **EXTERNAL**), they can use the **EXTERNAL-GLOBAL** mechanism to establish data linkages (see “Declaration Concepts,” this section).

### CHECK

This option is provided for option external procedure declarations and full procedure declarations which will subsequently be called as externals by other programs. The option specifies how much checking is done by the operating system between the option external declaration (in the calling program) and the actual procedure declaration as compiled.

If this option is not specified, no checking is performed. Otherwise, the smaller of the two parameters is used to determine the level of checking (except that intrinsics determine their level of checking, never the caller). The check values are:

- 0 — no checking
- 1 — check procedure type only
- 2 — checks procedure type and number of parameters.
- 3 — checks procedure type, number of parameters, and type of each parameter.

## VARIABLE

This option specifies that the procedure can be called with a variable number of actual parameters. The compiler generates code (when the procedure is called) to provide the procedure with a parameter bit mask in location Q – 4 (also Q – 5 if more than 16 parameters). If an actual parameter is missing e.g., NOW(A,,C); the corresponding bit in the mask is set to zero. The correspondence is from right to left (the rightmost bit—bit 15—corresponds to the right parameter). In the procedure call, the occurrence of a right parenthesis before the parameter list is filled, implies that the rest of the parameters are missing. When the procedure is entered, it is the responsibility of the procedure to examine the bit mask. Parameters will always occur in the same Q– addresses, but missing parameters will have garbage in their locations.

## FORWARD

This option specifies that the complete procedure declaration will be introduced later in the program. FORWARD is used to circumvent contradictions incurred by recursion when a procedure calls itself indirectly (procedures must be declared before being referenced).

## INTERRUPT

This option specifies that the procedure is an external interrupt procedure. The structure and uses of interrupt routines are covered in *HP 3000 Multiprogramming Executive Operating System (03000-90005)*.

## INTERNAL

A procedure with this option cannot be called from another segment. This makes processing of the procedure more efficient for the loader subsystem and allows more than one segment to have a procedure with the same name. INTERNAL procedures cannot be moved to another segment or called from another procedure.

## LOCAL DECLARATIONS

Procedures can declare local variables that are known only within the procedure and are allocated space in the Q+ area when the procedure is called. Thus, they occupy space only when the procedure is called and are deleted when the procedure exits. As indicated in the syntax, all declaration types are allowed within procedures with these comments:

- Procedures declared within procedures must be option EXTERNAL.
- Data declarations (simple variables, arrays, pointers) must be of the “local” form (see the appropriate topic in this section.)

Many of the differences of local declarations are discussed under “Declaration Concepts,” this section.

OWN variables are a special variety of local variable; they are allocated space in the DB area rather than on the top of the stack. If initialized, they are initialized at the beginning of the program, not every time the procedure is called. Since they are allocated in DB, they are not deleted when a procedure exits, but are still in existence (with their last value) when the procedure is called again.

## PROCEDURE BODY

The procedure body consists of the local declarations and the statements of the procedure, preceded by a BEGIN and terminated by an END;. The body can contain any SPL/3000 statements. If the body contains no local declarations and only one statement, the BEGIN-END pair can be omitted. The end of the body generates an EXIT instruction; additional exits can be generated using the RETURN statement (see "RETURN Statement," Section V).

### EXAMPLE:

```

PROCEDURE BLANKBUF <<NAME>>
    (BUFFER,COUNT); <<FORMAL PARAMETERS>>
    VALUE COUNT; <<VALUE PART>>
    LOGICAL ARRAY BUFFER; <<SPECIFICATION>>
    INTEGER COUNT; <<PART>>
    <<EMPTY OPTION PART>>
<<BODY>>
    BEGIN
        LOGICAL BLANK WORD := " "; <<DATA GROUP>>
        BUFFER := BLANKWORD ; <<STATEMENTS>>
        MOVE BUFFER(1) := BUFFER,(COUNT);
    END; <<END DECLARATION>>
<<SAMPLE FUNCTION AND CALL>>
    BEGIN
        INTEGER NUM := 108, NIX;
        INTEGER PROCEDURE VAL(A,B,C); <<FUNCTION DECLARATION>>
            VALUE A,B,C;
            INTEGER A,B,C;
            VAL := (A+B)*C;
    <<MAIN PROGRAM>>
        NIX := NUM / VAL(4,5,6); <<THIS IS EQUIVALENT TO THE STATEMENT:>>
                                <<NIX := NUM / ((4+5)*6);>>

    END.
<<OPTION FORWARD EXAMPLE>>
PROCEDURE PROC1;OPTION FORWARD <<dummy declaration>>
PROCEDURE PROC2;OPTION FORWARD; <<dummy declaration>>

PROCEDURE PROC1;IF X = (Y := Y+1) THEN PROC2; <<real declaration>>
PROCEDURE PROC2;IF X = (Z := Z+1) THEN PROC1; <<real declaration>>

```

## INTRINSIC DECLARATION

An intrinsic declaration specifies that one of the system-provided procedures (an intrinsic) will be used by the program. Intrinsic are pre-compiled procedures that are supplied to SPL/3000 programmers for performing input/output, file access, and utility functions as part of the Multiprogramming Executive (MPE/3000). SPL/3000 provides a simple interface to intrinsics because SPL/3000 has no built-in construct for input/output (unlike FORTRAN, BASIC, COBOL, and other high-level languages). Input and output of data in SPL/3000 programs must be performed by using the MPE/3000 file system intrinsics. The user can also declare intrinsics from his own intrinsic file.

### Syntax

```
<intrinsic declaration> ::= INTRINSIC <intrinsic identifier list> |  
                             INTRINSIC (<file>) <intrinsic identifier list>  
  
<intrinsic identifier>   ::= <identifier>  
                             †equivalent to an option EXTERNAL declaration of  
                             each intrinsic  
  
<file>                   ::= { any valid random-access file of the operating system }
```

### Semantics

The identifiers in an intrinsic list must be included in an installation-defined intrinsic file. The SPL/3000 compiler searches the file for the intrinsic name and, if it is found, inserts the declaration for the intrinsic into the program. The declaration is equivalent to an option EXTERNAL procedure declaration (see "Procedure Declaration," this section) and specifies the procedure's parameters, etc. Operating system intrinsics are described in *HP 3000 Multiprogramming Executive Operating System (03000-90005)*. These intrinsics are called like normal external procedures.

The programmer can specify his own intrinsic file in parentheses. In this case, the compiler searches for the procedure name and declaration in the file specified, rather than in the system file. Appendix G describes how to build intrinsic files.

### EXAMPLES:

```
INTRINSIC FOPEN,FREAD,FWRITE,PRINT,READ;  
INTRINSIC (MYFILES) ASCII, CONVERT, OUTPUT, DATA'MAP3;
```

## SUBROUTINE DECLARATION

A subroutine declaration defines an identifier as a subroutine and specifies what attributes the subroutine will have:

- Data type of result for function subroutines.
- Type and number of formal parameters.
- Statements of the subroutine body.

Subroutines are called by means of the identifier and a list of actual parameters. Subroutines can be declared either globally or locally, but global subroutines cannot be accessed locally. Local declarations are not allowed within subroutines.

### Syntax

```
<subroutine declaration> ::= <stype> SUBROUTINE <sub head> <sub body>
<sub head>                ::= <subrouted identifier> <formal part> |
                             <subroutine identifier>
                             † no parameters
<sub body>                ::= <statement>
<subroutine identifier>    ::= <T subr identifier> |
                             † typed
                             <subr identifier>
                             † not typed
<subr identifier>         ::= <identifier>
<formal part>              ::= (<formal param list>) ; <value part>
                             <specification part>
<formal param>             ::= <identifier>
                             † defined only within subroutine
<value part>              ::= VALUE <identifier list> ; |
                             † formal params
                             <empty>
                             † Those formal params not mentioned in the
                             <value part> are passed by reference
<specification part>      ::= <specification> ; |
                             † specify types of formal params
                             <specification part> <specification>
<specification>           ::= <type> <identifier list> |
                             † simple variables
                             <atype> ARRAY <identifier list> |
                             † arrays
                             <atype> POINTER <identifier list> |
                             † pointers
                             <ctype> PROCEDURE <identifier list>
                             † procedures — no parameter checking
```

<code>&lt;stype&gt;</code>	<code>::= &lt;type&gt;  </code> <code>† determines data type of function</code> <code>&lt;empty&gt;</code> <code>† non-function subroutine</code>
<code>&lt;ctype&gt;</code>	<code>::= &lt;type&gt;  </code> <code>† specifies data type of function procedure parameter</code> <code>&lt;empty&gt;</code> <code>† non-function procedure parameter</code>
<code>&lt;atype&gt;</code>	<code>::= &lt;type&gt;  </code> <code>† specifies data type of array/pointer parameter</code> <code>&lt;empty&gt;</code> <code>† LOGICAL assumed</code>
<code>&lt;type&gt;</code>	<code>::= INTEGER   LOGICAL   BYTE   DOUBLE   REAL   LONG</code>

## Syntax References

`<statement>` → V, STATEMENT TYPES

## Semantics

Subroutines have the same parameter conventions as procedures except that options such as **VARIABLE**, **EXTERNAL** and **CHECK** are not provided and subroutines cannot be passed labels. Subroutines can have a data type and can be functions just as procedures can. The subroutine body consists of any SPL/3000 statement, including a compound statement, but cannot contain declarations. Global subroutines can reference global variables and local subroutines can reference local and global variables. Subroutines can be called recursively. Subroutines are called using the **SCAL** instruction and return using **SXIT**. For details on calling subroutines, see “Function Designator,” Section IV, and “Subroutine Call Statement,” Section V.

### EXAMPLE:

```

INTEGER SUBROUTINE S(A,B,C);
    VALUE A,B,C;
    INTEGER A,B,C;
    S := (A^2) + (B*C);
SUBROUTINE ZERO (ARRAY,HISUB);
    VALUE HISUB;
    INTEGER HISUB;
    INTEGER ARRAY ARRAY;
BEGIN
    I := 0; <<global variable>>
    WHILE I <= HISUB>
        BEGIN
            ARRAY (I) := 0;
            I := I + 1;
        END;
    END;
END;

```



# ***SECTION IV***

## ***Expressions***

### **EXPRESSION TYPES**

An expression is a sequence of operations upon constants, variables, and indexed items which results in a single value of a specified data type. If the data type is logical, the expression is a logical expression and logical operators are allowed within it. If the data type is numeric (byte, integer, double, real, long), the expression is an arithmetic expression and arithmetic operators are used within it. An IF expression allows a choice to be made between two expressions of the same word size based on a hardware and/or software conditions.

### **Syntax**

<code>&lt;expr&gt;</code>	<code>::= &lt;T expr&gt;</code> ‡ results in value of type T
<code>&lt;T<sub>irbde</sub> expr&gt;</code>	<code>::= &lt;aexp&gt;  </code> ‡ arithmetic expression <code>&lt;T<sub>irbde</sub> IF expr&gt;</code>
<code>&lt;logical expr&gt;</code>	<code>::= &lt;lexp&gt;  </code> ‡ logical expression <code>&lt;logical IF expr&gt;</code>
<code>&lt;T IF expr&gt;</code>	<code>::= IF &lt;cond clause&gt; THEN &lt;expr&gt; ELSE &lt;expr&gt;</code> ‡ both <expr> must be of same word size; byte treated as one word

### **Syntax References**

<code>&lt;lexp&gt;</code>	→ IV, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS
<code>&lt;aexp&gt;</code>	→ IV, ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS
<code>&lt;cond clause&gt;</code>	→ V, IF STATEMENT

## Semantics

Expressions are used to determine values to be used in statements. Where <expr> is specified in the syntax any type of expression is allowed: arithmetic, logical, or IF. When <aexp> is specified, only an expression resulting in a numerical data type is allowed. When <lexp> is specified only an expression resulting in a logical value is allowed. The T mechanism (see "Introduction") is often used to specify an expression resulting in only certain data types.

The IF expression consists of two alternative expressions and a condition clause. The two expressions must be of the same word size (byte is treated as one word). The condition clause is a combination of logical expressions and hardware branch words which results in a true or false value. If the condition clause is true, the expression after THEN is selected; if the condition clause is false, the expression after ELSE is selected. For the definition of condition clause, see "IF Statement," Section V.

Within SPL/3000 expressions, only variables of the same data type can appear on either side of an operator. That is, integer can be multiplied by integer, but not by real. The only exception to this is the exponentiate operator ( ^ ) in arithmetic expressions; real and long data types can be exponentiated to integer powers. In all other cases the combination of data items of differing types can only be accomplished through type transfer functions. For example, the function FIXR converts an expression of type real into one of type double and rounds the result to the closest integer:

FIXR(<T<sub>r</sub>expr>)

A corresponding function, FIXT, converts real to double and truncates the result:

FIXT(<T<sub>r</sub>expr>)

There are not type transfer functions for all possible transformations. The following table shows which transfers are provided and which functions should be used in each case. In some cases it may be necessary to specify nested type transfer functions (e.g., to convert from real to integer, either INTEGER (FIXR(<T<sub>r</sub>expr>)) or INTEGER(FIXT(T<sub>r</sub>expr>))).

From	To					
	Long	Real	Double	Integer	Logical	Byte
Long	—	REAL				
Real	LONG	—	FIXR FIXT			
Double	LONG	REAL	—	INTEGER	LOGICAL	
Integer		REAL	DOUBLE	—	LOGICAL	BYTE
Logical		REAL	DOUBLE	INTEGER	—	BYTE
Byte		REAL	DOUBLE	INTEGER	LOGICAL	—

*NOTE: LOGICAL (Double) leaves the 32-bit value on the stack so that a 32-bit divide (/) can be performed. If only 16 bits of the double are desired, use LOGICAL (INTEGER (double)).*

## VARIABLES

Variables are one of the items that occur in expressions. Each variable, whether it be a simple variable, an array element, a pointer reference, or the top of stack, is associated with one data item of a specific type. The address of any data item can be used as an integer variable since it is a 16-bit, signed quantity.

### Syntax

```
<T variable>      ::= <T simpvar identifier> |  
                    <T pointer identifier> <index> |  
                    <T array identifier> <index>  
                    TOS  
                    † top of stack  
  
<integer variable> ::= @ <T simpvar identifier> |  
                    † 16 bit DB-relative address  
                    @ <T pointer identifier> <index> |  
                    @ <T array identifier> <index> |  
                    † DB or PB relative  
                    @ <label identifier> |  
                    † PB-relative address  
                    @ <procedure identifier> |  
                    † PB-relative address of entry point  
                    @ <entry identifier> |  
                    † PB-relative address of entry point  
                    ABSOLUTE (<index>)  
                    † privileged access to contents of absolute location <index>  
  
<index>           ::= <empty> |  
                    † zero element  
                    (<Tilb expr>) |  
                    † element number  
                    (<Tilb assignment statement>)
```

### Syntax References

```
<simpvar>          → III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION  
<pointer>          → III, POINTER DECLARATION  
<array>            → III, ARRAY DECLARATION  
<assignment statement> → V, ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT  
<expr>             → IV, EXPRESSION TYPES
```

## Semantics

The three most common types of variables (they occur in all data types) are the simple variable, the array reference, or the pointer reference. Array and pointer references specify an element by means of a subscript or index; the index must always be a one-word value (byte, integer, or logical). The index value specifies an element index (not a word index). It is loaded into the index register and used in an indexed memory reference instruction. If no index is specified the reference is to the zero element. (This is more efficient than explicitly specifying 0 as the index; in the first case the index register is not used, in the second it is.)

## TOS

This is a reserved symbol that always refers to the top of the stack; it can be used anywhere a variable can be used. When TOS is used on the left side of an assignment statement (TOS := <expr>; see "Assignment Statement," Section V), the normal store operation is omitted and the result of the expression is left on the top of the stack. If TOS occurs in an expression, the contents of the top of the stack are used as the next operand. TOS must be used carefully, since the compiler does not keep track of the number of elements pushed onto the stack prior to encountering TOS. The data type of TOS is determined by context; it takes the type of the expression or other operand. Thus, in one context TOS might refer to the top word, in another the top two words, or in another, the top three words. Note that TOS does not refer to the same memory location from one statement to the next, since S is constantly changing. Also, the default type for TOS is integer. A rule for determining the effect of TOS is to assume that TOS is a variable and then delete all LOAD and STOR operations for TOS. There is only one exception to this:

```
INT. (BIT : FIELD) := TOS;<<XCH;DPF;STOR>>
TOS := 7; <<LOAD 7>>
A := TOS + 6; <<A = 13>>
REAL1 := -TOS <<illegal if REAL1 is real>>
```

## ADDRESSES (@)

When @ precedes a simple variable, it specifies that the DB-relative address of the simple variable is desired. All addresses are signed, one-word integers and are treated as such in expressions. When @ precedes an array identifier, it refers to the DB- or PB-relative address of the zero element of the array (whether direct or indirect). When @ precedes an array reference (<array identifier> <index>), it refers to the DB- or PB-relative address of the array element. When @ precedes a pointer identifier, it refers to the address contained within a pointer cell; when an index is specified, @ refers to the address of the data element relative to the zero element pointed at by the pointer. For example,

```
BEGIN
  INTEGER A;
  INTEGER ARRAY B(0:10);
  POINTER P := @ B(5);
  A := @A; <<A assigned address of A>>
  A := P; <<A assigned address of B(5)>>
  A := @B; <<A assigned address of B(0)>>
```

## ABSOLUTE

This construct can only be executed in privileged mode. It provides access to the contents of an absolute memory location. The address (<index>) is loaded into the index register. If ABSOLUTE appears on the left side of an assignment statement (ABSOLUTE (<index>) := <expr>; see "Assignment Statement," Section V), a PSTA (privileged store) instruction is generated which stores the top of the stack (<expr>) in the absolute memory location specified by the index register. If ABSOLUTE appears within an expression, a PLDA (privileged load) instruction is generated which loads onto the stack the contents of the absolute location specified by the index register. For example,

```
LOGICAL L1, L2, L3;
INTEGER A1, Q2, A3 = X;
  L1 := ABSOLUTE (A1 * A2);
  ABSOLUTE (L2) := A1 + 5;
  ABSOLUTE (A3) := A1 + 5; <<A3 is index register>>
  L1 := ABSOLUTE (ABSOLUTE (3));
  L1 := ABSOLUTE (A3);
```

## FUNCTION DESIGNATOR

Function designators are another of the possible components of an expression. A function designator specifies a function identifier (a typed procedure or subroutine) to be executed and a list of actual parameters (values or addresses) to be passed to the function. The function returns a value of the appropriate data type to the place in the expression where it was called.

### Syntax

```
<T function designator> ::= <T proc identifier> <actual param part> |  
                           <T subr identifier> <actual param part>  
                           † call to function procedure or subroutine  
  
<actual param part>      ::= <empty> |  
                           † no parameters  
                           (<actual param list>) |  
                           † no stacked params  
                           (<stacked param list>) |  
                           † all stacked params  
                           (<stacked param list>, <actual param list>) |  
                           † stacked params must come first  
  
<actual param>          ::= <reference param> |  
                           † passes an address  
                           <value param> |  
                           † passes a value  
                           <empty> |  
                           † missing parameter; option VARIABLE only  
  
<stacked param>         ::= *  
                           † address or value and zero for function result are already  
                           stacked by user  
  
<reference param>       ::= <T simpvar identifier> |  
                           <T array identifier> <index> |  
                           <T pointer identifier> <index> |  
                           <procedure identifier> |  
                           <label identifier>  
  
<value param>          ::= <aexp> |  
                           <lexp> |  
                           <assignment statement>
```

### Syntax Reference

<T proc identifier>	→	III, PROCEDURE DECLARATION
<T subr identifier>	→	III, SUBROUTINE DECLARATION
<simpvar>	→	III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION
<array>	→	III, ARRAY DECLARATION
<pointer>	→	III, POINTER DECLARATION
<label>	→	III, LABEL DECLARATION

<assignment statement>	→	V, ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT
<index>	→	IV, VARIABLES
<aexp>	→	IV, ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS
<lexp>	→	IV, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS

## Semantics

The function, procedure or subroutine must have been previously declared (see “Procedure Declaration,” and “Subroutine Declaration,” Section III). The actual parameters must match one-to-one the formal parameters as specified in the declaration; correspondence is checked left to right.

A stacked parameter is specified by an asterisk (\*) in place of an actual parameter; this specifies that the necessary address or value has already been loaded onto the stack by the user. Labels cannot be stacked. If any parameter is stacked, all parameters to its left must be stacked too. In addition, functions require that a 1-, 2-, or 3-word zero (depending on function type) be pushed onto the stack before the function parameters for the return value. Normally, the compiler provides this automatically. However, if stacked parameters are used, the programmer must arrange for this zero. For example,

```

INTEGER PROCEDURE COMPUTE (N); . . . . . ;
ASSEMBLE (ZERO);
    TOS := A;
    B := COMPUTE (*) + 1000;

```

For more details on calling procedures and subroutines, see “Procedure Call Statement,” and “Subroutine Call Statement,” Section V.

Procedure calls use the PCAL instruction and subroutine calls use the SCAL instruction.

## BIT OPERATIONS

Bit operations can be used in any type of expression. Bit extraction is the extraction of a contiguous bit field starting at a particular bit position. Bit concatenation consist of extracting a bit field from a specified position in one quantity and depositing it at a specified position in another quantity. Bit shifts allow values to be shifted left or right, arithmetically, circularly or logically. All bit operations are performed on copies of the specified quantities so that the original variables remain unchanged.

### Syntax

<T bit operation>	::= <T <sub>ilb</sub> bit extraction>   <T <sub>ilb</sub> bit concatenation>   <T bit shift>
<T <sub>ilb</sub> bit extraction>	::= <T <sub>ilb</sub> primary> . (<bit extract field>)
<bit extract field>	::= <left extract bit> : <extract field length>
<left extract bit>	::= <unsigned integer> ‡ bit to start with from 0 through 15
<extract field length>	::= <unsigned integer> ‡ number of bits to extract from 1 through 15
<T <sub>ilb</sub> bit concatenation>	::= <T <sub>ilb</sub> primary> CAT <T <sub>ilb</sub> primary> (<bit cat field>)
<bit cat field>	::= <left deposit bit> : <bit extract field>
<left deposit bit>	::= <unsigned integer> ‡ bit to start deposit with 0 through 15
<T bit shift>	::= <T primary> & <shift op> (<shift count>)
<shift op>	::= LSL   ‡ Logical Shift Left LSR   ‡ Logical Shift Right ASL   ‡ Arithmetic Shift Left ASR   ‡ Arithmetic Shift Right CSL   ‡ Circular Shift Left CSR   ‡ Circular Shift Right DASL   ‡ Double Arithmetic Shift Left DASR   ‡ Double Arithmetic Shift Right DLSL   ‡ Double Logical Shift Left



<shift op> (cont.)	DLSR
	† Double Logical Shift Right
	DCSL
	† Double Circular Shift Left
	DCSR
	† Double Circular Shift Right
	TASL
	† Triple Arithmetic Shift Left
	TASR
	† Triple Arithmetic Shift Right
<shift count>	TNSL
	† Triple Normalizing Shift Left
	::= <integer expr>
	† if this is not a constant the index register is used to hold the variable shift count

## Syntax References

<unsigned integer>	→	II, INTEGER CONSTANTS
<primary>	→	IV, ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS
<integer expr>	→	IV, EXPRESSION TYPES

## Semantics

Bit extraction and concatenation are defined for one word quantities only. Bit shifts are provided for one, two, and three word quantities. In all bit expressions the original primaries operated upon are unchanged by the operation. See “Assignment Statement,” Section V, for bit deposit.

### BIT EXTRACTION

The purpose of bit extraction is to isolate a contiguous bit field from the 16 bits of a one-word value. The result is a right-justified value with leading bits set to zero. The maximum field that can be extracted in a single operation is 15 bits. Bit extraction uses the EXF (extract field) instruction. Extraction starts with the bit of the primary specified by <left extract bit> and continues for <extract field length> bits to the right, wrapping around to bit 0, if necessary. For example,

```
%125.(8:2) <<result is %1>>
```

### BIT CONCATENATION

Concatenation permits the formation of a new value by extracting a bit field from one word and depositing it at a specified position in another word. The <left deposit bit> indicates in which bit position of the first primary (to the left of CAT) to deposit the field extracted from the second. The <left extract bit> indicates at which position in the second primary to begin extracting the bit field. The <extract field length> indicates how many contiguous bits to

extract and subsequently deposit. Bit concatenation uses both the EXF (extract field) and DPF (deposit field) instructions. For example,

`%(16)69A2 CAT %(16)ABCD(8:4:4) <<result is %(16)69B2>>`

## BIT SHIFTS

In the bit shifts the `<shift op>` is a mnemonic for a hardware shift operation. Consult the hardware documentation for complete details. In general, *logical* shifts fill with zero bits as they shift left or right; *arithmetic* shifts preserve the sign bit on a left shift (and fill with zeroes) and propagate the sign bit on a right shift (e.g., fill with the sign bit); and *circular* shifts have no fill bit (e.g., bits shifted off one end are shifted in at the other end). SPL/3000 performs no type or word-size tests in bit shifts; if the programmer specifies a triple shift on a single word quantity, a triple shift is generated. The programmer is responsible for maintaining compatibility. Note that if the shift count is not a constant less than 64, the index register is used. For example,

`(A := A + 1) & LSR(3)`  
`VAR & DASL(6)`  
`%(1234D) & DCSL(SHIFT)`

## ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS

An arithmetic expression is a sequence of operations upon numerical data which results in a single value of a specific data type. Execution of operators occurs left-to-right unless higher precedence operators or parentheses are encountered. Type mixing of operands across operators is not allowed, but type transfer functions are provided. Primaries, the basic components of an arithmetic expression, can be constants, variables, bit expressions, arithmetic expressions in parentheses or backward slashes (absolute value), function designators, or assignment statements in parentheses.

### Syntax

```

<Tirbde aexp>      ::= <aexp> | <addop> <aexp>
                        † lowest precedence

<aexp>              ::= <Tirbde term> |
                        <aexp> <addop> <Tirbde term>

<Tirbde term>       ::= <Tirbde factor> |
                        <Tirbe term> <mulop> <Tirbe factor>
                        † no double multiply or divide

<Tirbde factor>     ::= <Tirbde primary> |
                        <Tire factor> ^ <Tire primary>
                        † exponentiation
                        † allowable combinations are: i^i, r^r, r^i, e^e, e^i

<Tirbde primary>    ::= <Tirbde variable> |
                        † highest precedence
                        <constant> |
                        † if number, must match type of other operand; if string, 1
                          character can be used as Tilb; 2 characters as Til, and 3 or 4
                          characters as Td only. Expressions containing only integer
                          constants are considered type integer, not logical

                        <Tirbde bit operation> |
                        (<aexp>) |
                        \<aexp>\ |
                        † absolute value
                        <Tirbde function designator> |
                        (<Tirbde assignment statement>)

<addop>             ::= + | -

<mulop>             ::= * | / | MOD

```

## Syntax References

<variable>	→	III, VARIABLES
<constant>	→	II, CONSTANT TYPES
<bit operation>	→	IV, BIT OPERATIONS
<function designator>	→	IV, FUNCTION DESIGNATORS
<assignment statement>	→	V, ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

## Semantics

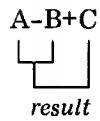
An arithmetic expression defines a sequence of operations, which results in a single value of a certain data type that is the expression's result. What is done with this value depends upon where the expression occurs.

### SEQUENCE OF OPERATIONS

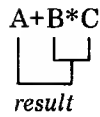
Arithmetic operations are ranked in order of precedence to determine the relative order in which operations are executed. Higher precedence operations are performed first. When operations are of the same rank, execution proceeds from left to right. The rank from highest to lowest, is as follows:

- Rank 1:    <primary>
- Bit operations.
  - Expressions in parentheses.
  - Expressions in backward slants (absolute value).
  - Function designators.
  - Assignment statements in parentheses (value assigned to variable and left on the stack).
- Rank 2:    <factor>
- Exponentiation (^, circumflex character).
  - Defined for integer, real, and long data, plus real to integer power and long to integer power.
- Rank 3:    <term>
- Multiply (\*) and divide (/) for integer, real, byte and long data; no double multiply or divide.
  - Modulo (MOD) or remainder for integer and byte data.
- Rank 4:    <addop>
- Addition (+) and subtraction (-) for integer, real, byte, double, and long data.

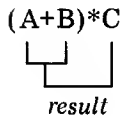
The order in which operations are performed is determined by this rank. For example,



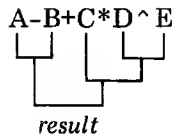
Operators of the same rank are performed from left to right.



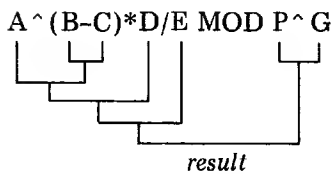
Operators of different rank are performed according to their position in the hierarchy of operators (highest rank first).



Operators enclosed in parentheses take precedence over operators outside of parentheses, even those of higher rank.



Left-to-right order is maintained until an operator occurs that is of lower rank than the next operator or the next item is in parentheses.



## TYPE MIXING

Mixing of data types across operands is not allowed in SPL/3000, except that real and long values can be exponentiated to integer powers. Type transfer functions are available to handle conflicts (see "Expression Types," this section).

The type of the operands determines the type of both the operation result and the operator used. Integer operations are used when the operands are of type byte.

## LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS

Logical expressions are evaluated in the same manner as arithmetic expressions. However, logical expressions use more and different operators; allow only data of type logical and provide specialized constructs, such as byte comparisons. The result of a logical expression is a logical value which can be interpreted as a 16-bit unsigned integer or as true (odd) or false (even). The truth value of a logical expression can be used to make decisions (see IF statement). Logical primaries can be logical constants, variables, bit expressions, expressions in parentheses, functions, or assignment statements in parentheses, or the complement of any logical primary. The operators LAND and LOR should not be confused with AND and OR (see “IF STATEMENT,” Section V).

### Syntax

```
<lexp> ::= <disjunction> |  
          † lowest precedence  
          <lexp> LOR <disjunction> |  
          † logical or  
          <integer aexp> <=> <integer aexp> <=> <integer aexp> |  
          † compare Range and Branch, uses index register  
  
<disjunction> ::= <conjunction> |  
                  <disjunction> XOR <conjunction>  
                  † exclusive or  
  
<conjunction> ::= <logical elem> |  
                  <conjunction> LAND <logical elem>  
                  † logical and  
  
<logical elem> ::= <logical term> |  
                  <logical term> <relop> <logical term> |  
                  † logical compare  
                  <Tirbde aexp> <relop> <Tirbde aexp> |  
                  † arithmetic compare  
                  <byte ref> <relop> <byte ref> <count> <sdeca> |  
                  <byte ref> <relop> *PB <count> <sdeca> |  
                  † stacked PB address  
                  <byte ref> <relop> <string> <sdeca> |  
                  <byte ref> <relop> (<listelmt>) <sdeca> |  
                  <byte variable> = <btestword> |  
                  † test type of byte  
                  <byte variable> <> <btestword>  
  
<logical term> ::= <logical factor> |  
                  <logical term> <logical addop> <logical factor>  
  
<logical factor> ::= <logical primary> |  
                  <logical factor> <logical mulop> <logical primary>  
  
<logical primary> ::= <logical variable> |  
                      † highest precedence  
                      <logical value> |  
                      <string> |  
                      † 1 or 2 characters only  
                      <logical bit operation> |  
                      (<lexp>) |
```

`<logical primary>` ::= `<logical function designator>` |  
 (cont.) `(<logical assignment statement>)` |  
`NOT <logical primary>`  
           † one's complement

`<relop>` ::= `>` |  
           † greater than  
`<` |  
           † less than  
`=` |  
           † equals  
`<>` |  
           † not equals  
`<=` |  
           † greater than or equal  
`<=` |  
           † less than or equal

`<logical addop>` ::= `+` | `-`

`<logical mulop>` ::= `*` |  
           † multiply — 16-bit result  
`/` |  
           † divide — 16-bit dividend  
`MOD` |  
           † remainder — 16-bit dividend  
`**` |  
           † multiply — 32-bit result  
`//` |  
           † divide — 32-bit dividend  
`MODD`  
           † remainder — 32-bit dividend

`<byte ref>` ::= `<byte pointer identifier> <index>` |  
`<byte array identifier> <index>` |  
`*`  
           † stacked byte address

`<count>` ::= `,` (`<integer expr>`)

`<btestword>` ::= `ALPHA` |  
           † “A” through “Z” and “a” through “z”  
`NUMERIC` |  
           † “0” through “9”  
`SPECIAL`  
           † all other characters

`<sdeca>` ::= `<empty>` |  
           † delete all values  
`,` `<sdec>`

`<sdec>` ::= `0|1|2`  
           † number of words to delete

`<listelmt>` ::= `<initial value>` |  
`<decimal integer> (<initial value list>)` |  
           † repeat factor  
`<listelmt list>`  
           † no nesting of repeats

`<initial value>` ::= `<constant>`  
           † truncated to 8 bits

## Syntax References

<index>	→ IV, VARIABLES
<aexp>	→ IV, ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS
<string>	→ II, STRING CONSTANTS
<logical variable>	→ IV, VARIABLES
<logical value>	→ II, LOGICAL CONSTANTS
<bit operation>	→ IV, BIT OPERATIONS
<function designator>	→ IV, FUNCTION DESIGNATORS
<assignment statements>	→ V, ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT
<pointer identifier>	→ III, POINTER DECLARATION
<array identifier>	→ III, ARRAY DECLARATION
<constant>	→ II, CONSTANT TYPES

## Semantics

The purpose of a logical expression is to evaluate certain conditions and relations to produce a value which can be interpreted either arithmetically (as a 16-bit positive number) or logically (as “true” or “false”). A logical expression is not a statement of fact, but an assertion that may be true or false at any given time.

Logical quantities in SPL/3000 are 16-bit positive integers, (see “Logical Constants,” Section II). A logical value is considered true if its integer value is odd, false if its value is even (that is, only the last bit is checked when using the result of a logical expression to make a decision. Use of the reserved words TRUE and FALSE is equivalent to the numeric values -1 and 0 (%177777 and %000000).

In general, the result of a logical expression is left as a full word operand on the top of the stack. An exception is when a relational operator is encountered, in which case a value -1 (true) or 0 (false) is left on the top of the stack. A further exception is when the result of a relational operator is used to make a decision (see <cond clause> under “IF Statement,” Section V); in this case, nothing is left in the stack and the status register is examined for the result.

## SEQUENCE OF OPERATIONS


Logical operations are ranked in order of precedence to determine the relative order in which operations are executed. Higher precedence operations are performed first. When operations are of the same rank, execution proceeds from left to right. The rank, from highest to lowest, is as follows:

- Rank 1:    <primary>
- Logical bit operation.
  - Logical expression in parentheses.
  - Logical function designator.
  - Logical assignment statement in parentheses (value assigned to variable and left on the stack).
  - NOT (unary one's complement)



- Rank 2: <factor>
- \* (Logical multiply, one word result).
  - / (Logical divide, one word dividend).
  - MOD (Logical modulo or remainder, one word dividend).
  - \*\* (Logical multiply, two-word result left on stack for user).
  - // (Logical divide, requires two-word dividend; if dividend equals a variable, two words are loaded from the location assigned to be variable; if the dividend is a partially evaluated expression, the compiler assumes a two-word dividend on the top of the stack).
- MODD (Logical modulo or remainder, requires two-word dividend; same conventions as //).
- Rank 3: <term>
- Logical addition (+) and subtraction (-); there is no logical unary minus.
- Rank 4: <elem>
- Algebraic and logical comparisons (=, <, >, < >, <=, >=); logical compares use the LCMP instruction to perform a 16-bit comparison which treats bit 0 as a data bit, not a sign bit; algebraic compares use one of three instructions (CMP, DCMP, FCMP) which perform comparisons taking into account the sign bit (negative numbers are less than positive numbers); the result is a TRUE (-1) if the relation specified holds or a FALSE (0) if it does not.
- Compare bytes (see below).
- Test bytes (byte variable is (=) or is not (< >) type alphabetic (ALPHA), numeric (NUMERIC), or other (SPECIAL)).
- Rank 5: <conjunction>
- Logical and of 16 bits (LAND).
- Rank 6: <disjunction>
- Logical exclusive or of 16 bits (XOR).
- Rank 7: <lowest>
- Logical inclusive or of 16 bits (LOR).
- Compare integer range ( $A \leq B \leq C$ , where A, B, C, are integer expressions; this uses the CPRB (compare range and branch instruction) instruction and the index register; result is TRUE (-1) if the middle integer is within the range, FALSE (0) if not.

The order in which operations are performed is determined by this rank. For example,

A\*B/C  
  
 result

Operators of the same rank are performed from left to right.

A LOR B LAND C

*result*

Operators of different rank are performed according to their position in the hierarchy of operators (highest rank first).

(A LOR B) LAND C

*result*

Operators enclosed in parentheses take precedence over operators outside of parentheses, even those of higher rank.

A+B+C/ NOT D

*result*

Left-to-right order is maintained until an operator occurs that is of lower rank than the next operator or the next item in parentheses.

NOT ((A MOD B LOR C=D) LAND E)

*result*

## TYPE MIXING

Mixing of data types across operands is not allowed in SPL/3000, but type transfer functions are available to handle conflicts. In logical expressions, logical operands are always used, except in the special cases where the operands are arithmetic, but the result is logical (compares, byte tests, and range tests). See “Expression Types,” this section for all type transfer functions.

## COMPARING BYTE STRINGS

Logical expressions provide a mechanism for comparing strings of bytes to determine whether a relation between them is true or false. The instruction generated is CMPB (compare bytes). The byte strings are compared, one by one, at their numeric values until the compared bytes are unequal or until a specified number of comparisons have been made (<count>). If the relation specified (<, >, =, <=, >=, <>) holds, the result is TRUE (-1), otherwise FALSE (0).

The string to the left of the <relop> can be specified by a byte pointer or array reference (DB relative only) or a stacked DB byte address (\*). The asterisk specifies that the user has already loaded the stack with the byte address.

The string to the right can be specified by a byte pointer or array reference (PB or DB relative), a stacked DB address (\*), a stacked PB address (\*PB), a literal string (no <count>), or a list of contents in parentheses (see “Array Declaration,” Section III) with no <count>.

The absolute value of the <count> specifies how many bytes to compare. A positive <count> specifies left to right comparison while negative specifies right to left.

The <sdeca> operand specifies how many of the temporary values used by CMPB to delete from the stack. An empty <sdeca> specifies sdec of 3 or delete all values. The values are loaded on the stack in this order:

S-2		first address
S-1		second address
S-0		count

For example,

TARGET = SOURCE, (20)  
 \* = \*, (72)  
 \* < "SINCERE", 0  
 BAR(5) > "BOB SMITH", 0

# ***SECTION V***

## ***Statements***

### **STATEMENT TYPES**

A statement is an order to perform some action. Statements are the components for the bodies of programs and procedures. It is possible to label any statement and to combine any sequence of statements into a single statement called a compound statement.

### **Syntax**

```
<statement> ::= <label identifier> := <statement> |  
               <compound statement> |  
               <assignment statement> |  
               <GO statement> |  
               <IF statement> |  
               <CASE statement> |  
               <FOR statement> |  
               <DO statement> |  
               <WHILE statement> |  
               <MOVE statement> |  
               <SCAN statement> |  
               <PROCEDURE call statement> |  
               <RETURN statement> |  
               <SUBROUTINE call statement> |  
               <DELETE statement> |  
               <PUSH and SET statement> |  
               <ASSEMBLE statement> |  
               <empty>  
  
<compound statement> ::= BEGIN <compound tail>  
  
<compound tail> ::= <statement> END |  
                  <statement> ; <compound tail>
```

### **Syntax References**

<label identifier> → III, LABEL DECLARATION

All of the statement types referred to are covered in this section (in alphabetic order).

## ASSEMBLE STATEMENT

The purpose of the ASSEMBLE statement is to generate any code desired by specifying literal hardware instructions. Instructions within an ASSEMBLE statement can be labeled (and branched to from without). Identifiers outside the ASSEMBLE statement can be used within, but indirect references are never provided unless they are specified explicitly.

### Syntax

```
<ASSEMBLE statement> ::= ASSEMBLE (<instruction slist>)
<instruction slist>   ::= <instruction> |
                        <instruction slist> ; <instruction>
                        † note that semicolon is delimiter
<instruction>         ::= <label identifier> : <opcode format> |
                        <opcode format>
<opcode format>       ::= <format-1> | <format-2> | <format-3> |
                        <format-4> | <format-5> | <format-6> |
                        <format-7> | <format-8> | <format-9>
<format-1>           ::= <memory ref opcode> <address part> <I-field> <X-field> |
                        <sub memref op> <label identifier>
<memory ref opcode>  ::= <sub memref op> |
                        STOR | INCM | DECM | LDB |
                        LDD | STB | STD
<sub memref op>      ::= LOAD | LDH | LRA | CMPM | ADDM | SUBM | MPYM |
                        BR | BL | BE | BLE | BG | BNE | BGE |
                        TBA | MTBA | TBX | MTBX
<address part>       ::= <var identifier> | <addr mode> <usi 255>
<var identifier>     ::= <T simpvar identifier> |
                        <T pointer identifier> |
                        <T array identifier>
<addr mode>          ::= DB+ | Q+ | Q- | P+ | P- | S-
<usi 255>            ::= <unsigned integer>
                        † less than an equal to 255
<I-field>            ::= ,I |
                        † indirect
                        <empty>
                        † direct
<X-field>            ::= ,X |
                        † indexing
                        <empty>
                        † no indexing
<format-2>           ::= <stack opcode> |
                        † fills with NOP
                        <stack opcode> , <stack opcode>
```

<stack opcode>	::= NOP   DELB   DOEL   ZROX   INCX   DECX   ZERO   DZRO   DCMF   DADD   DSUB   MPYL   DIVL   DNEG   DXCH   CMP   ADD   SUB   MPY   DIV   NEG   TEST   STBX   DTST   DFLT   BTST   XCH   INCA   DECA   XAX   ADAX   ADXA   DEL   ZROB   LDXB   STAX   LDXA   DUP   DDUP   FLT   FCMP   FADD   FSUB   FMPY   FDIV   FNEG   CAB   LCMP   LADD   LSUB   LMPY   LDIV   NOT   OR   XOR   AND   FIXR   FIXT   INCB   DECB   XBX   ADBX   ADXB
<format-3>	::= <branch subop1> <arg1> <I-field>   <non-branch subop1> <usi63> <X-field>
<usi31>	::= <unsigned integer> ‡ less than or equal to 31
<usi63>	::= <unsigned integer> ‡ less than or equal to 63
<arg1>	::= <label identifier>   P <sign> <usi31>   * <sign> <usi31>
<sign>	::= +   -
<branch subop1>	::= IABZ   IXBZ   DXBZ   DABZ   BCY   BNCY   CPRB   BOV   BNOV   BRO   BRE
<non-branch subop1>	::= ASL   ASR   LSL   LSR   CSL   CSR   SCAW   TASL   TASR   TNSL   DASL   DADR   DLSL   DLSR   DCSL   DCSR   TBC   TRBC   TSBC   TCBC
<format-4>	::= <sub subop2> <usi255>   EXF <usi> : <usi> DPF <usi> : <usi>
<sub subop2>	::= LDI   LDXI   CMPI   ADDI   SUBI   MPYI   DIVI   PSHR   LDNI   LDZN   CMPI   SETR
<format-5>	::= RSW   LLSH   PLDA   PSTA
<format-6>	::= <special op> <K-field>
<K-field>	::= <unsigned integer> ‡ less than or equal to 15
<special op>	::= PAUS   SED   XCHD   SMSK   RMSK   XEQ   SIO   RIO   WIO   TIO   CIO   CMD   SIRF   SIN   HALT
<format-7>	::= <subop3> <usi255>   PCAL <procedure identifier>   SCAL 0   LLBL <procedure identifier>
<subop3>	::= PCAL   SCAL   EXIT   SXIT   ADXI   SBXI   LLBL   LDPP   LDPN   ADDS   SUBS   TSBM   ORI   XORI   ANDI

<format-8>	::= <sub move op> <sadmode>   † delete all values <sub move op> <sadmode> <sdec>   MVBW <ccf> <sdeca>   <scan op>   † delete all values <scan op> <sdec>
<sadmode>	::= <empty>   † DB PB † PB rel. address
<sdeca>	::= <empty>   † delete all values <sdec>
<sdec>	::= 0   1   2
<ccf>	::= A   N   AN   AS   ANS
<sub move op>	::= MOVE   MVB   CMPB
<scan op>	::= SCW   SCU   MVBL   MVLB
<format-9>	::= CON <const list>
<const>	::= <constant>   <label identifier> † creates PB address

## Syntax References

<label>	→ III, LABEL DECLARATION
<simpvar>	→ III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION
<pointer>	→ III, POINTER DECLARATION
<array>	→ III, ARRAY DECLARATION
<unsigned integer>	→ II, INTEGER CONSTANTS
<procedure>	→ III, PROCEDURE DECLARATION
<subroutine>	→ III, SUBROUTINE DECLARATION
<entry>	→ III, ENTRY DECLARATION
<constant>	→ II, CONSTANT TYPES

## Semantics

The ASSEMBLE statement allows the programmer to generate machine instructions of his choice. Appendix E contains general information on the HP 3000 machine instructions, but the programmer should refer to the hardware documentation for exact details. The

opcodes as listed in the hardware manuals are used in ASSEMBLE except that BCC (branch on condition code) has been replaced by six mnemonics which specify the exact branch condition:

BL	Branch if less than (condition code equals 1)
BE	Branch if equal (condition code equals 2)
BLE	Branch if less than or equal (condition code equals 1 or 2)
BG	Branch if greater than (condition code equals 0)
BNE	Branch if not equal (condition code equals 0 or 1)
BGE	Branch if greater than or equal (condition code equals 0 or 2)

The compiler does not modify P-relative displacements within an ASSEMBLE. Consequently, branches out of range cause an error. The programmer must explicitly specify indirect whenever that is desired.

The format-9 opcodes are psuedo-opcodes; they do not generate machine instructions but are used to generate constants within the code at the next PB-relative location. The CON opcode can generate indirect addresses for labels as well as numerical and string constants.

*EXAMPLES:*

```
PROCEDURE OCTOUT(BUF,T,N); VALUE T,N;
  BYTE ARRAY BUF;
  LOGICAL T;
  INTEGER N;
BEGIN  <<CONVERT N OCTAL DIGITS OF T TO ASCII CHARACTERS IN BUF>>
  LABEL LOOP;
  ASSEMBLE (
    LDX N;
    DECX, NOP;
    LOAD T;
LOOP:  DUP;
    ANDI 7;
    ADDI %60;
    STB BUF,I,X;
    LSR 3;
    DECX;
    BGE LOOP);
END;
```



## ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

The purpose of an assignment statement is to store the result of an expression into a variable of the same size as the result. Multiple assignments allow the same result to be stored in several variables and bit deposits allow a one-word result to be stored into a variable starting at a specific bit position. Assignment statements can be of any data type (i.e., the variable assigned a value can be of any type).

### Syntax

```
<T assignment statement> ::= <T left part> := <right part> |  
                             <T left part> := <assignment statement>  
                             † multiple assignment  
  
<T left part> ::= <T variable> |  
                  <Til variable> . (<deposit field>)  
                  † when used with multiple assignments only the leftmost  
                    assignment can be a deposit  
  
<deposit field> ::= <left deposit bit> : <deposit field length>  
  
<left deposit bit> ::= <unsigned integer>  
                      † bit to start deposit with; 0 through 15  
  
<deposit field length> ::= <unsigned integer>  
                          † 1 through 15  
  
<right part> ::= <T expr>  
                † must match left part in number of words
```

### Syntax References

```
<variable>      → IV, VARIABLES  
<unsigned integer> → II, INTEGER CONSTANTS  
<expr>          → IV, EXPRESSION TYPES
```

### Semantics

The result of an expression is stored in the variables (simple variable, array, or pointer) specified on the left side of the assignment operator (:=). The result must be of the same word size (but not necessarily the same type) as the assignment variable. Type byte is treated as if it were one word.

When a deposit is specified, the result must be a one-word quantity. The number of contiguous bits required (<deposit field length>) is taken from the rightmost bits of the result and deposited (DPF instruction) in the variable, starting with the bit position specified (<left deposit bit>).

If a deposit is combined with multiple assignments, only the leftmost assignment can be a deposit.

Instructions used in assigning values include STOR (store word), STB (store byte), and STD (store double).

*EXAMPLES:*

```
INTEGER I,J; LOGICAL K,L;  
BYTE B1, B2; REAL R1, R2;  
DOUBLE D;  
  I := K*L;  
  I(5:6) := J := L;  
  I(0:8) := B1;  
  R1 := R1 := R1+(R2*REAL(I));  
  D := R1;
```

## CASE STATEMENT

The purpose of a CASE statement is to select one of a set of statements for execution by using a variable index in a compound statement. The first statement has index 0 and the others are numbered consecutively (1, 2, 3....). After execution of the specified statement, control transfers to the statement follow the CASE statement.

### Syntax

```
<CASE statement> ::= CASE <Tilb expr> OF <case body> |  
                  CASE * <Tilb expr> OF <case body>  
                  † no bounds checking  
  
<case body>      ::= <compound statement>  
<compound statement> ::= BEGIN <compound tail>  
<compound tail>  ::= <statement> END |  
                  <statement> ; <compound tail>
```

### Syntax References

```
<exp>      → IV, EXPRESSION TYPES  
<statement> → V, STATEMENT TYPES
```

### Semantics

A CASE statement contains an integer expression specifying the statement desired and a compound statement. The statements in the compound statement are numbered consecutively starting with 0. For example,

```
CASE J OF  
  BEGIN  
    A := 100; <<#0>>  
    B := 200; <<#1>>  
    BEGIN  
      C := 300;  
      IF A<B THEN D := 100;  
    END;  
    QR := 500; <<#3>>  
  END;
```

Normally, if the integer expression evaluates to less than zero or greater than the acceptable indices, control transfers to the statement following the CASE statement. However, if the \* option is specified, no bounds checking is performed and invalid indices will cause unpredictable results.

*EXAMPLES:*

```
CASE (N*2)+(QR-3) OF
  BEGIN
    GOTO FIRST;
    GOTO SECOND;
    IF A < 300 GOTO THIRD;
    <<null statement #4>>;
    IF A > 300 GO TO THIRD;
    A := 512;
  END;
CASE * J OF
  BEGIN  A := 0;
         A := 1;
         A := 2;
         A := 3;
         A := 4;
  END;
```

## DELETE STATEMENT

The purpose of the DELETE statement is to generate one of these three hardware instructions:

- DEL (delete contents of S-0, decrement S register by one).
- DELB (delete contents of S-1 by storing contents of S-0 into it; decrement S register by one).
- DDEL (delete contents of S-0 and S-1; decrement S register by two).

### Syntax

```
<DELETE statement> ::= DEL |  
                        † delete TOS  
                        DELB |  
                        † delete B  
                        DDEL  
                        † double delete
```

### Semantics

The Delete statements have the following effect:

Before DEL			After DEL		
S-2	7		S-1	7	
S-4	6		S-0	6	
S-0	5				

Before DELB			After DELB		
S-2	7		S-1	7	
S-1	6		S-0	5	
S-0	5				

Before DDEL			After DDEL		
S-2	7		S-0	7	
S-1	6				
S-0	5				

These statements should be used with caution as they override the compiler's management of the stack.

*EXAMPLES:*

DEL;     <<DEL instruction>>

DELB;   <<DELB instruction>>

DDEL;   <<DDEL instruction>>

## DO STATEMENT

The purpose of the DO statement is to repeatedly execute a statement until a specified condition clause becomes true. The condition clause is evaluated and tested after each execution of the statement. When the condition becomes true, execution transfers to the statement following the DO statement.

### Syntax

<DO statement> ::= DO <statement> UNTIL <cond clause>

### Syntax References

<statement> → V, STATEMENT TYPES

<cond clause> → V, IF STATEMENT

### Semantics

After the statement specified is executed the condition clause is evaluated and tested. If false, the statement is executed again; if true, control transfers to the next statement following the DO statement. Each time the loop statement is executed the condition clause is again checked.

The condition clause can consist of logical expressions and hardware branch words as described under "IF Statement," this section.

### EXAMPLES:

```
DO A(I := I+1) := I*2 UNTIL I > 23;
DO BEGIN
    I := I+1;
    IVAL(I) := I/(X*Y+3);
    BVAL(I) := (X*Y+3)/I;
    END
UNTIL I > 20;
```

## FOR STATEMENT

The purpose of the FOR statement is to repeatedly execute a statement, changing an integer test variable by a specified amount each time, until the test variable exceeds a specified limit. The FOR statement in SPL/3000 is very machine-dependent, because it makes use of loop control instructions which require special stack markers.

### Syntax

```
<FOR statement> ::= <FOR clause> <statement>
<FOR clause>    ::= FOR <integer simpvar identifier> :=
                    <Tilb expr> <STEP clause>
                    UNTIL <Tilb expr> DO |
                    FOR * <integer simpvar identifier> :=
                    <Tilb expr> <STEP clause>
                    UNTIL <Tilb expr> DO
<STEP clause>   ::= <empty> |
                    † step = 1
                    <Tilb expr>
```

### Syntax References

```
<statement>    → V,  STATEMENT TYPES
<expr>         → IV,  EXPRESSION TYPES
<simpvar identifier> → III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION
```

### Semantics

The initial value, step value, and final value are all integer values which are calculated once upon entry into the FOR. The initial value is stored in the integer variable (FOR A :=) and tested before the loop statement is executed. After each execution of the loop statement, the variable is changed by the step value and compared with the final value. If the loop variable is less than or equal to the final value, the loop statement is executed again. If the loop variable is greater than the final value, control transfers to the next statement following the FOR statement.

There are two variations allowed in FOR: the STEP clause can be omitted, in which case the step is implicitly 1; and an \* after FOR can be used to specify that the loop statement is to be executed once before incrementing and testing the variable. This guarantees that the loop statement is executed at least once even if the initial test should fail.

If the loop variable is equivalenced to the index register, the TBX and MTBX instructions are used for loop control. If the loop variable is a simple variable, the TBA and MTBA instructions are used. Since all of these instructions use a series of values placed in the stack, unpredictable results may occur if the user modifies the stack during the loop statement. If the index register is used as the loop variable, any operations within the loop statement which change the index register (such as array referencing) can destroy the loop control.



*EXAMPLES:*

```
FOR I := MAX STEP -RANGE/4 UNTIL MAX -RANGE
  DO BEGIN
    FOFI := A*I^ 2+B*I+C;
    SUM := SUM + FOFI;
  END;
FOR I := 3 UNTIL LIM DO A(I) := I*2;  <<IMPLICIT STEP OF 1>>
FOR * I := 1 STEP 1 UNTIL LIM DO
  SUM := SUM + NARN(I);
```

## GO STATEMENT

The purpose of a GO statement is to transfer control unconditionally to a labeled statement. The labeled statement can be specified by a label identifier or an indexed switch identifier (selects one of a set of labels).

### Syntax

```
<GO statement> ::= GO <label ref> |  
                  GOTO <label ref> |  
                  GO TO <label ref>  
  
<label ref>      ::= <label identifier> |  
                  <switch identifier> (<sindex>) |  
                  * <switch identifier> (<sindex>)  
  
<sindex>         ::= <Tilb expr> | <Tilb assignment statement>  
                  † must result in one-word value
```

### Syntax References

<label identifier>	→	III, LABEL DECLARATION IV, STATEMENT TYPES
<switch identifier>	→	III, SWITCH DECLARATION
<aexp>	→	IV, ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS
<lexp>	→	IV, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS
<assignment statement>	→	V, ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

## Semantics

The object of a global GO statement must be global and the object of a local GO statement must be local. There are no branches into or out of procedures, but procedures can go to labels passed as parameters. Entry points cannot be the object of a GO statement. If a main program or procedure passes a label to a procedure as an actual parameter, the procedure can transfer to the label. For example,

```
BEGIN
  LABEL L1;
  PROCEDURE PROC2(A,B,C); <<DECLARATION OF PROC2>>
    VALUE A; INTEGER A,B; LABEL C;
    BEGIN
      .
      .
      .
      GO TO C; <<REFERENCE TO LABEL PARAMETER>>
    END; <<END OF PROC2 DECLARATION>>
  .
  .
  .
  <<MAIN PROGRAM>>
  PROC2(2,N,L1); <<CALL TO PROC2>>
  .
  .
  .
  L1: <<SPECIAL RETURN POINT>>
  .
  .
  .
END.
```

Switches are invoked using an indexed GO statement; the index is an integer value that specifies the label desired (labels in a switch declaration are numbered consecutively starting with 0; see “Switch Declaration,” Section III). Normally, if the index value is less than zero or greater than the number of labels minus one, control transfers to the statement following the GO statement. However, if the asterisk (\*) is specified, no bounds checking is performed and invalid indices will cause unpredictable results:

```
SWITCH SW := L1, L2, L3;
GO TO SW(N);    <<bounds checking>>
GO TO * SW(N);  <<no bounds checking>>
```

## IF STATEMENT

The IF statement chooses which of two statements to execute based on whether a condition clause is true or false. The condition clause can consist of logical expressions and/or hardware-defined branch words (overflow, carry, condition code, etc.). Indefinite nesting of IF statements is allowed.

### Syntax

```
<IF statement> ::= IF <cond clause> <THEN part> <ELSE part>

<cond clause> ::= <cond elem> |
                  † lowest precedence
                  <cond clause> OR <cond elem>

<cond elem> ::= <cond term> |
                <cond elem> AND <cond term>

<cond term> ::= <cond primary> |
                (<cond factor>)

<cond factor> ::= <cond primary> OR <cond factor> |
                  <cond primary> OR <cond primary>
                  † parens override precedence of AND but cannot be nested

<cond primary> ::= <branch word> |
                   † hardware test
                   <lexp>
                   † logical expression

<THEN part> ::= THEN <statement>
              † true alternative; can be empty but cannot be null statement
              (i.e. no semi-colon).

<ELSE part> ::= <empty> |
               † no false alternative
               ELSE <statement>
               † false alternative

<branch word> ::= CARRY | NOCARRY |
                  OVERFLOW | NOVERFLOW |
                  IABZ | DABZ |
                  IXBZ | DXBZ |
                  <relop>

<relop> ::= = |
           † condition code equals 2
           < > |
           † condition code equals 0 or 1
           < |
           † condition code equals 1
           > |
           † condition code equals 0
           < = |
           † condition code equals 1 or 2
           > =
           † condition code equals 0 or 2
```

## Syntax References

<lexp>           → IV, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS  
<statement>   → V, STATEMENT TYPES

## Semantics

The IF statement allows the programmer to select one of two statements for execution based on a condition clause (see below). There are two formats of the IF statement: Format 1 without an ELSE part, and Format 2 with an ELSE part.

### FORMAT 1

In this case, control is transferred to the statement following the THEN if the condition is true; if the condition is false, control falls through to the next statement following the IF statement. For example,

```
IF A < B THEN NX := A + B;
IF NO (FINAL LOR SUSPICIOUS) THEN
  BEGIN
    TEST' DONE := FALSE;
    GO TO AGAIN
  END;
```

### FORMAT 2

In this case, there are two alternative statements within the IF statement. If the condition is true, control transfers to the statement following THEN; if the condition is false, control transfers to the statement following ELSE. When the statement selected is complete, control transfers to the next statement following the IF statement. For example,

```
IF A < B THEN XA := XA + A
  ELSE XA := XA + B;
IF TESTVAR THEN Y := Y + 1
  ELSE IF EXTRATEST THEN Y := Y - 1;
<<INVALID>>
IF TEST THEN A := A + B; ELSE A : A - B;
<<NO SEMICOLON>>
```

## NESTING

IF statements can be indefinitely nested (i.e., the alternative statements of an IF can themselves be IF statements). The innermost THEN is paired with the closest following ELSE and pair proceeds outward. For example,

```

IF <cond clause>
{
  THEN
  {
    IF <cond clause>
    {
      THEN
      {
        IF <cond clause>
        {
          THEN <statement>
          ELSE <statement>
        }
      }
      ELSE <statement>;
    }
  }
  <<NO OUTERMOST ELSE>>
}

```

For details on the implications of branch words (overflow, DXBZ, condition codes, etc.) consult the hardware reference manual.

Logical expressions and/or branch words can be combined using two special branch operators: OR and AND. If two items are combined with OR, the result is true if either or both is true; if two items are combined with AND, the result is true only if both are true. AND has precedence over OR, but this can be overridden by putting OR'ed sequences in parentheses. For example,

```

A < B OR DXBZ
{
  {
    }
}

A < B OR DXBZ AND CARRY
{
  {
    {
      }
    }
  }
}

(A < B OR DXBZ) AND CARRY
{
  {
    {
      }
    }
  }
}

```

## CONDITION CLAUSE

The <cond clause> which is used to select the desired statement in IF is also used in the DO-UNTIL and WHILE -DO statements as well as the IF expression (see "Expression Type," Section IV). It is composed of two types of items: logical expressions and hardware branch words. Logical expressions (see "Logical Expressions," Section IV) result in a value of true or false. Branch words are hardware dependent branch conditions which are also either true or false:

Branch Word	True Condition
CARRY	Carry bit on
NOCARRY	Carry bit off
OVERFLOW	Overflow bit on
NOOVERFLOW	Overflow bit off

Branch	True Condition
IABZ	Increment TOS(S-0). True if then zero.
DABZ	Decrement TOS(S-0). True if then zero.
IXBZ	Increment index register. True if then zero.
DXBZ	Decrement index register. True if then zero.
<	Condition Code equals 1
=	Condition Code equals 2
< =	Condition Code equals 1 or 2
>	Condition Code equals 0
< >	Condition Code equals 0 or 1
> =	Condition Code equals 0 or 2

OR and AND use branch instructions such as BCC, BOV, BNOV, BCY, BNCY, BRO, BRE, IABZ, IXBZ, DABZ, and DXBZ; they never generate arithmetic ands and ors. All parts of the condition clause may not be executed every time, since OR and AND branch out of the condition as soon as the truth value of the condition is determined (e.g., if a series of items is ANDed together, only one need be false for the total to be false).

#### *EXAMPLES:*

```

IF A > B THEN C := A;
IF A > B THEN C := A ELSE C := B;
IF B LOR C LAND NOT D THEN
    GO TO START ELSE
    GO TO FINISH;
IF OVERFLOW AND (N = 0) THEN
    BEGIN
        NO := 255;
        GO TO RESTART;
    END
ELSE
    BEGIN
        N := N - 1;
        GO TO START;
    END.

```

## MOVE STATEMENT

The purpose of the MOVE statement is to move words or bytes from one location to another. The locations are specified by means of DB- or PB-relative addresses. There are three types of move operations, corresponding to three move-group instructions:

- Move words (MOVE instructions).
- Move bytes (MVB instruction).
- Move bytes while alphabetic and/or numeric, with or without upshifting of lowercase letters (MVBW).

In any move operation, the original contents of the MOVE source are unchanged.

### Syntax

```
<MOVE statement> ::= <MOVE stmt> <sdeca> |
                   <MOVE-WHILE stmt> <sdeca>

<MOVE statement> ::= MOVE <Tirlde dest ref> := <Tirlde pointarr> <count> |
                   † move words
                   MOVE <Tirlde pointarr> := * <sadmode> <count> |
                   † stacked source address
                   MOVE <Tirlde pointarr> := <string> |
                   MOVE <Tirlde pointarr> := (<listelmt>) |
                   MOVE <byte ref> := <byte pointarr> <count> |
                   † move bytes
                   MOVE <byte ref> := * <sadmode> <count> |
                   † stacked source address
                   MOVE <byte ref> := <string> |
                   MOVE <byte ref> := (<listelmt>)

<Tirlde dest ref> ::= * |
                   † stacked destination address
                   <Tirlde pointarr>

<MOVE-WHILE stmt> ::= MOVE <byte ref> := <byte ref> WHILE <cct>

<byte ref> ::= <byte pointarr> |
              *
              † stacked byte address

<T pointarr> ::= <T pointer identifier> <index> |
                <T array identifier> <index>

<count> ::= , (<integer expr>)

<sdeca> ::= <empty> |
           † delete all values
           , <sdec>

<sdec> ::= 0 | 1 | 2
          † stack decrement
```



<b>&lt;sadmode&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;empty&gt;</b>   † DB stacked address <b>PB</b> † PB stacked address
<b>&lt;ccf&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>A</b>   † ALPHA only — condition code field <b>N</b>   † NUMERIC only <b>AS</b>   † ALSPH only, upshift <b>AN</b>   † ALPHA or NUMERIC <b>ANS</b> † ALPHA or NUMERIC; upshift
<b>&lt;listelmt&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;initial value&gt;</b>   <b>&lt;decimal integer&gt;</b> ( <b>&lt;initial value list&gt;</b> )   † only one level of repeat factors allowed <b>&lt;listelmt list&gt;</b>
<b>&lt;initial value&gt;</b>	<b>::=</b> <b>&lt;constant&gt;</b> † truncated on left to 8 bits for byte move

## Syntax References

<b>&lt;string&gt;</b>	→	II,   STRING CONSTANTS
<b>&lt;pointer&gt;</b>	→	III,  POINTER DECLARATION
<b>&lt;array&gt;</b>	→	III,  ARRAY DECLARATION
<b>&lt;expr&gt;</b>	→	IV,   EXPRESSION TYPES
<b>&lt;decimal integer&gt;</b>	→	II,   INTEGER CONSTANTS
<b>&lt;constant&gt;</b>	→	II,   CONSTANT TYPES
<b>&lt;index&gt;</b>	→	IV,   VARIABLES

## Semantics

The move statements in SPL/3000 are very machine-dependent because they are based upon specific machine instructions.

## SOURCE AND DESTINATION

The first reference after the MOVE is the destination address; the address, constant, or \* after the := is the source address. Move words use integer, real, long, double, or long arrays or pointer references as source and destination. Move bytes use only byte array or pointer references. When the source is a string or a list of constants, the constants are generated into the code stream and moved from there. The list of constants (<listemt>) is the same as described under “Array Declaration,” Section III.

Where \* or \*PB appears in place of an address, the DB of PB address must have been previously loaded onto the stack by the user. The source in move words or bytes (but not move bytes while) can also be a PB-relative address specified either by a local P-relative array reference or a stacked PB address (\*PB). If both addresses are stacked, a byte MOVE is always assumed.

## COUNT

The count value is an integer expression that specifies the number of words or bytes to move; a positive count indicates a left-to-right move and a negative count indicates a right-to-left move. At the completion of the move the count equals zero and the addresses have been changed to point to the list character moved.

## SDEC

The sdec value, or stack decrement operand, is an integer constant of value 0, 1, or 2 (or empty) which specifies how many of the temporary values required by move should be deleted from the stack after the move. An empty sdec restores the stack to its setting before the move statement.

The stacked values used by move words and bytes are as follows:

S-2		destination address
S-1		source address
S-0		count

The stacked values for move bytes while are as follows:

S-1		destination address
S-0		source address

In move bytes while, the <ccf> operand is the condition code field; it specifies the conditions for continuing the move to the next character:

- A      current character is alphabetic.
- N      current character is numeric.
- AS     current character is alphabetic; upshift if lowercase.
- AN     current character is alphabetic or numeric.
- ANS    current character is alphabetic or numeric; upshift if lowercase.

**EXAMPLES:**

```
BYTE ARRAY BAR(0:20);
```

```
ARRAY DATA (0:100),DATAC(0:10);
```

MOVE DATA(4) := DATA(4),(4)2;      <<moves 4 words, leaves destination addresses on stack>>

MOVE \* := DATAC(3),(6);      <<moves 6 words from DATAC into DATA starting  
where previous move left off>>

```
MOVE DATA(0) := (5(0,1,2,3,4),10,20,99);
```

```
MOVE BAR := "ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRST",1;
```

DEST := TOS;

## PROCEDURE CALL STATEMENT

The purpose of a PROCEDURE CALL statement is to invoke a previously-defined procedure and pass to it a list of actual parameters (addresses or values). When the procedure completes, execution normally returns to the next statement following the call (unless the procedure itself overrides the return).

### Syntax

```
<PROCEDURE call statement> ::= <procedure identifier> <actual param part>
<actual param part>      ::= <empty> |
                             † no parameters
                             (<actual param list>) |
                             † no stacked params
                             (<stacked param list>) |
                             † all stacked params
                             (<stacked param list> , <actual param list>)
                             † stacked params must come first
<actual param>           ::= <reference param> |
                             † passes an address
                             <value param> |
                             † passes a value
                             <empty>
                             † missing parameter; option VARIABLE only
<stacked param>          ::= *
                             † address or value is already stacked by user
<reference param>        ::= <T simpvar identifier> |
                             <T array identifier> <index> |
                             <T pointer identifier> <index> |
                             <procedure identifier> |
                             <entry identifier> |
                             † formal parameter must be procedure
                             <label identifier>
<value param>            ::= <aexp> |
                             <lexp> |
                             <assignment statement>
```

### Syntax References

<simpvar>	→	III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION
<pointer>	→	III, POINTER DECLARATION
<array>	→	III, ARRAY DECLARATION
<procedure>	→	III, PROCEDURE DECLARATION
<label>	→	III, LABEL DECLARATION
<aexp>	→	IV, ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS
<lexp>	→	IV, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS
<assignment statement>	→	V, ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

## Semantics

The procedure call statement generates a PCAL instruction to the procedure body associated with the specified <procedure identifier>.

The parameter list contains the list of actual parameters to be passed to the procedure. These must match the formal parameters, as declared in the procedure, in a one-to-one correspondence. The legitimate actual parameters for each formal parameter are listed under "Procedure Declaration," Section III.

Stacked parameters (specified by \*) are parameters for which the user has already loaded the address or value onto the stack. If any parameter is stacked, all parameters to the left must be stacked too. Labels cannot be stacked. In addition, if the procedure is a function, the user must push a one, two, or three word zero onto the stack prior to the parameters for the return value. When stacked parameters are not used, the compiler generates this automatically. After the procedure returns, the function value space is deleted. For example,

```
PROC2 (*, *, R2);           <<2 stacked params>>
ASSEMBLE (ZERO; LOAD R1); <<push zero for integer function>>
PROC3 (*, R1, R2);          <<one stacked param; call to function procedure>>
```

If the procedure is declared with option VARIABLE, parameters can be omitted from the list by leaving a comma to hold their place. See "Procedure Declaration," Section III. For example,

```
PROCEDURE P(A,B,C,D,E,F); . . . . ;
      OPTION VARIABLE . . . . . ;
P(R , , , R2);           <<B,C,E,F missing>>
P(R);                    <<B,C,D,E,F missing>>
```

If the actual procedure identifier is itself a formal parameter (i.e., a procedure called from within a procedure), no parameter checking is performed, and the actual parameters are treated as if the corresponding formal parameters were all called by reference.

The procedure returns to the point of call when it reaches the final END of the procedure. Additional returns can be included in a procedure with the RETURN statement (see "RETURN Statement," this section). In addition, the procedure can return to a point other than the normal return by using GOTO with a label passed to it is a parameter (see "GO Statement," this section).

### EXAMPLE:

```
COMPUTE (23.0, L2, PROC5);
```

## PUSH AND SET STATEMENTS

The purpose of the PUSH statement is to push the contents of any or all of the registers onto the stack (PSHR instruction). The purpose of the SET statement is to set the contents of any or all of the registers using values taken from the top of stack (SETR instruction).

### Syntax

<PUSH and SET statement> ::= PUSH (<register spec list>) |  
SET (<register spec list>)

<register spec> ::= S | Q | X | STATUS | Z | DL | DB  
† privileged mode required to set DB, DL, STATUS,  
or Z

### Semantics

These two statements generate PSHR and SETR instructions for the registers specified. In a SETR the programmer must have previously loaded the values. In a PSHR the values are left on the top of the stack. The instructions operate as follows:

#### PSHR

If more than one register is specified, they are stacked in the order shown below (e.g., if all were stacked, DB would be in S-0, DL-DB in S-1, etc.).

Register Specified	Value Stacked
S	S-DB (relative S before PSHR)
Q	Q-DB (relative Q)
X	Index register
STATUS	Status register
Z	Z-DB (relative DB)
DL	DL-DB (relative DL)
DB	DB (absolute address)

#### SETR

The appropriate values must be loaded onto the stack before executing SETR. If more than one register is specified, they are set in the order shown below (DB first, S last). After the SETR instruction, the values have been deleted from the stack. SETR requires privileged mode except to set the index register, Q, S, and bits 4 through 7 and 2 of the status register (user traps, overflow, carry, and condition code).

Register Specified	Value taken from Stack
DB	DB (absolute address)
DL	DB-DB (relative DL)
Z	Z-DB (relative Z)
STATUS	Status register
X	Index register
Q	Q-DB (relative Q)
S	S-DB (relative S)

Relative addresses in the stack are added to the absolute value for DB before setting the registers.

**EXAMPLES:**

```

PUSH(DB,STATUS,Q);
    TDB := TOS;
    TSTATUS := TOS;
    TQ := TOS;
.
.
.
    TOS := TDB;
    TOS := TSTATUS;
    TOS := TQ;
SET(DB,STATUS,Q);

```

## RETURN STATEMENT

The purpose of a RETURN statement is to generate additional exit points within a procedure or subroutine body. The final END of a procedure or subroutine declaration also generates an exit, but only the RETURN statement allows the programmer to leave some or all of the parameters on the stack after exiting back to the point of call.

### Syntax

```
<RETURN statement> ::= RETURN <pcount>
<pcount>           ::= <unsigned integer> |
                        † number of words to delete on exit
                        <empty>
                        † delete all parameters
```

### Syntax References

<unsigned integer> → 11, INTEGER CONSTANTS

### Semantics

A RETURN within a procedure generates an EXIT instruction; a RETURN within a subroutine generates an SXIT. Multiple RETURNS within a single subroutine or procedure are allowed.

If the count in a RETURN is omitted, all parameters are deleted from the stack. If the count equals  $N$ , then only the top  $N$  parameter words are deleted after exiting. If  $N$  equals zero, all parameters are left on the stack.

The calling program must know how many parameters will be left on return from the procedure or subroutine, because it must take care of them (examine them, save them, etc.). Integer, logical, and byte variables by value use one word; double and real use two words; and long variables and labels use three. All other parameters use one word.

### EXAMPLES:

```
PROCEDURE P(A,B); VALUE A; DOUBLE A; INTEGER B;
  BEGIN
    .
    .
    .
    RETURN 1;    <<EXIT 1; LEAVE A>>
    .
    .
    RETURN;      <<EXIT 3; DELETE BOTH>>
    .
    .
  END;
```



## SCAN STATEMENT

The purpose of a SCAN statement is to examine a contiguous string of bytes looking for two specified characters (the test and terminal characters) without actually moving any data. When the statement ends, pointers and indicators are left to show what was found and where. This is the one SPL/3000 statement that cannot be used properly without explicitly accessing the stack. There are two scan operations, corresponding to the two hardware scan instructions:

- Scan until a test character is found (SCU instruction).
- Scan while a test character is found (SCW instruction).

### Syntax

```
<SCAN statement> ::= <SCAN-WHILE stmt> <sdeca> |  
                    <SCAN-UNTIL stmt> <sdeca>  
  
<SCAN-WHILE stmt> ::= SCAN <byte ref> WHILE <testword>  
  
<byte ref> ::= <byte pointer identifier> <index> |  
               † no PB arrays  
               <byte array identifier> <index> |  
               *  
               † stacked byte address  
  
<testword> ::= <T11 simpvar identifier> | <integer> |  
               "<char> <char>" |  
               † terminal character — test character  
               *  
               † stacked testword  
  
<SCAN-UNTIL stmt> ::= SCAN <byte ref> UNTIL <testword>  
                    † no PB arrays  
  
<sdeca> ::= <empty> |  
            † delete all values  
            , <sdec>  
  
<sdec> ::= 0 | 1 | 2  
  
<char> ::= { any member of the ASCII character set; " is represented by " }
```

### Syntax References

```
<pointer> → III, POINTER DECLARATION  
<array>   → III, ARRAY DECLARATION  
<simpvar> → III, SIMPLE VARIABLE DECLARATION  
<integer> → II, INTEGER CONSTANTS  
<index>   → IV, VARIABLES
```

## Semantics

The scan statements in SPL/3000 are very machine-dependent because they are based on specific machine instructions.

### BYTE REFERENCE

The byte reference (which specifies where to start scanning) can be a byte array reference, a byte pointer reference, or an asterisk (\*) if the DB-relative address already is stacked by the user. Local P-relative arrays cannot be scanned. The address of the byte reference is loaded onto the stack.

### TESTWORD

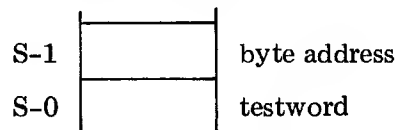
The testword is an integer logical simple variable, an integer constant, or a two character string where the first character (bits 0 to 7) specifies the terminal character and the second character (bits 8 through 15) specifies the test character. In both scans each byte is tested against the test and terminal character.

In a scan until, the scan continues until either the test character or the terminal character is found. In a scan while, the scan continues until a byte is found that matches the terminal character or does not match the test character. The carry bit is set after a scan to indicate whether the scan terminated because of the test character (carry = 0) or the terminal character (carry = 1). This can be tested with an IF statement:

```
IF CARRY THEN.....;
IF NOCARRY THEN.....
```

### SDEC

Sdec specifies how many words to delete from the stack after the scan. The stack decrement factor is very important in scan because when the scan terminates, the address of the terminating byte is left in the stack. The stack for a SCU or SCW instruction appears as follows:



A stack decrement of 1 deletes the testword but leaves the byte address which can be saved as follows:

```
SCAN'STOP := TOS;
```

An empty sdec field generates a stack decrement of 2 and leaves the stack as it was before the scan statement.

*EXAMPLES:*

```
SCAN INPUT UNTIL ".$",1;  
IF CARRY THEN GOTO FINAL;  
SCAN * UNTIL ".X",1;  
ADR := TOS;
```

## SUBROUTINE CALL STATEMENT

The purpose of a SUBROUTINE CALL statement is to invoke a previously-defined subroutine and pass to it a list of parameters (addresses or values). When the subroutine completes, execution normally returns to the next statement following the SUBROUTINE CALL (unless the subroutine itself overrides the return).

### Syntax

```
<SUBROUTINE call statement> ::= <subroutine identifier> <actual param part>

<actual param part> ::= <empty> |
                        † no parameters
                        (<actual param list>) |
                        † no stacked parameters
                        (<stacked param list>) |
                        † all stacked parameters
                        (<stacked param list> , <actual param list>)
                        † stacked parameters must come first

<actual param> ::= <reference param> |
                  † passes an address
                  <value param> |
                  † passes a value
                  <empty>
                  † missing parameter; option VARIABLE only

<stacked param> ::= *
                  † address or value is already stacked by user

<reference param> ::= <T simpvar identifier> |
                    <T array identifier> <index> |
                    <T pointer identifier> <index> |
                    <T procedure identifier>

<value param> ::= <aexp> |
                 <lexp> |
                 <assignment statement>
```

### Syntax References

<subroutine>	→	III, SUBROUTINE DECLARATION
<simpvar>	→	III, SIMPVAR DECLARATION
<pointer>	→	III, POINTER DECLARATION
<array>	→	III, ARRAY DECLARATION
<index>	→	IV, VARIABLES
<procedure>	→	III, PROCEDURE DECLARATION
<label>	→	III, LABEL DECLARATION
<aexp>	→	IV, ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS
<lexp>	→	IV, LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS
<assignment statement>	→	V, ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

## Semantics

The SUBROUTINE CALL statement generates an SCAL instruction to the subroutine specified. In a main program only global subroutines can be called; within a procedure only subroutines local to that procedure can be called.

The conventions for parameters are exactly the same as described under “Procedure Declaration,” Section II, and “Procedure Call Statement,” this section, except that subroutines cannot have a variable number of parameters and labels cannot be passed to subroutines.

### *EXAMPLES:*

```
SUBROUTINE S(A,B,C);  
  INTEGER A,B,C;  
  BEGIN  
    .  
    .  
    .  
  END;  
S(K,R5,TESTVAL);
```

## WHILE STATEMENT

The purpose of the WHILE statement is to repeatedly execute a statement as long as a specified condition clause is true. The condition clause is evaluated and tested before executing the statement. When the condition becomes false, execution transfers to the statement following the WHILE statement.

### Syntax

<WHILE statement> ::= WHILE <cond clause> DO <statement>

### Syntax References

<statement> → V, STATEMENT TYPES

<cond clause> → V, IF STATEMENT

### Semantics

The condition clause is always tested before executing the loop statement. When the condition is false, control transfers to the statement following the WHILE statement.

The condition clause can consist of logical expressions and hardware branch words as described under "IF Statement," in this section.

However, the following exceptions hold for the WHILE statement.

<u>&lt;branch lexp&gt;</u>	<u>Action</u>
IABZ	Increment TOS. Execute <statement> if TOS is non-zero.
DABZ	Decrement TOS. Execute <statement> if TOS is non-zero.
IXBZ	Increment X reg. Execute <statement> if X register is non-zero.
DXBZ	Decrement X reg. Execute <statement> if X register is non-zero.

### EXAMPLES:

```
WHILE I < 21 DO A(I := I+1) := 2^I;
WHILE 0 < N <= 100 < LAND NOT Q = "/" DO
  BEGIN
    Q := C5(I);
    I := I+1;
    N := N*I;
  END;
```

# ***APPENDIX A***

## ***ASCII Character Set***

Graphic	Decimal Value	Octal Value	Comments
	0	0	Null
	1	1	Start of heading
	2	2	Start of text
	3	3	End of text
	4	4	End of transmission
	5	5	Enquiry
	6	6	Acknowledge
	7	7	Bell
	8	10	Backspace
	9	11	Horizontal tabulation
	10	12	Line feed
	11	13	Vertical tabulation
	12	14	Form feed
	13	15	Carriage return
	14	16	Shift out
	15	17	Shift in
	16	20	Data link escape
	17	21	Device control 1
	18	22	Device control 2
	19	23	Device control 3
	20	24	Device control 4
	21	25	Negative acknowledge
	22	26	Synchronous idle
	23	27	End of transmission block
	24	30	Cancel
	25	31	End of medium
	26	32	Substitute
	27	33	Escape
	28	34	File separator
	29	35	Group separator
	30	36	Record separator
	31	37	Unit separator
	32	40	Space
!	33	41	Exclamation point
"	34	42	Quotation mark
#	35	43	Number sign
\$	36	44	Dollar sign

Graphic	Decimal Value	Octal Value	Comments
%	37	45	Percent sign
&	38	46	Ampersand
'	39	47	Apostrophe
(	40	50	Opening parenthesis
)	41	51	Closing parenthesis
*	42	52	Asterisk
+	43	53	Plus
,	44	54	Comma
-	45	55	Hyphen (Minus)
.	46	56	Period (Decimal)
/	47	57	Slant
0	48	60	Zero
1	49	61	One
2	50	62	Two
3	51	63	Three
4	52	64	Four
5	53	65	Five
6	54	66	Six
7	55	67	Seven
8	56	70	Eight
9	57	71	Nine
:	58	72	Colon
;	59	73	Semi-colon
<	60	74	Less than
=	61	75	Equals
>	62	76	Greater than
?	63	77	Question mark
@	64	100	Commercial at
A	65	101	Uppercase A
B	66	102	Uppercase B
C	67	103	Uppercase C
D	68	104	Uppercase D
E	69	105	Uppercase E
F	70	106	Uppercase F
G	71	107	Uppercase G
H	72	110	Uppercase H
I	73	111	Uppercase I
J	74	112	Uppercase J
K	75	113	Uppercase K
L	76	114	Uppercase L
M	77	115	Uppercase M
N	78	116	Uppercase N
O	79	117	Uppercase O
P	80	120	Uppercase P
Q	81	121	Uppercase Q
R	82	122	Uppercase R
S	83	123	Uppercase S
T	84	124	Uppercase T
U	85	125	Uppercase U
V	86	126	Uppercase V
W	87	127	Uppercase W



Graphic	Decimal Value	Octal Value	Comments
X	88	130	Uppercase X
Y	89	131	Uppercase Y
Z	90	132	Uppercase Z
[	91	133	Opening bracket
\	92	134	Reverse slant
]	93	135	Closing bracket
^	94	136	Circumflex
_	95	137	Underscore
`	96	140	Grave accent
a	97	141	Lowercase a
b	98	142	Lowercase b
c	99	143	Lowercase c
d	100	144	Lowercase d
e	101	145	Lowercase e
f	102	146	Lowercase f
g	103	147	Lowercase g
h	104	150	Lowercase h
i	105	151	Lowercase i
j	106	151	Lowercase j
k	107	152	Lowercase k
l	108	154	Lowercase l
m	109	155	Lowercase m
n	110	156	Lowercase n
o	111	157	Lowercase o
p	112	160	Lowercase p
q	113	161	Lowercase q
r	114	162	Lowercase r
s	115	163	Lowercase s
t	116	164	Lowercase t
u	117	165	Lowercase u
v	118	166	Lowercase v
w	119	167	Lowercase w
x	120	170	Lowercase x
y	121	171	Lowercase y
z	122	172	Lowercase z
{	123	173	Opening (left) brace
	124	174	Vertical line
}	125	175	Closing (right) brace
~	126	177	Tilde
	127	177	Delete

# ***APPENDIX B***

## ***Reserved Words***

The following symbols have special meaning in SPL/3000 and thus, cannot be used as identifiers:

ABSOLUTE	ELSE	LABEL	REAL
ALPHA	END	LAND	RETURN
AND	ENTRY	LOGICAL	SCAN
ARRAY	EQUATE	LONG	SET
ASSEMBLE	EXTERNAL	LOR	SPECIAL
BEGIN	FALSE	MOD	STEP
BYTE	FIXR	MODD	SUBROUTINE
CARRY	FIXT	MOVE	SWITCH
CASE	FOR	NOCARRY	THEN
CAT	FORWARD	NOT	TO
CHECK	GLOBAL	NOVERFLOW	TOS
COMMENT	GO	NUMERIC	TRUE
DABZ	GOTO	OPTION	UNCALLABLE
DDEL	IABZ	OR	UNTIL
DEFINE	IF	OVERFLOW	VALUE
DEL	INTEGER	OWN	VARIABLE
DELB	INTERNAL	POINTER	WHILE
DO	INTERRUPT	PRIVILEGED	XOR
DOUBLE	INTRINSIC	PROCEDURE	
DXBZ	IXBZ	PUSH	

# ***APPENDIX C***

## ***Compiler Subsystem Commands***

In general, compiler options such as source input merging, listing format specification, or warning message suppression are determined by default settings assigned by the compiler. However, the user can override these settings and select different options by issuing *compiler subsystem commands*. These commands take effect only after access to the compiler is established. They are directed only to the compiler and are not effective during object program execution.

Compiler subsystem commands differ in both function and format from compiler language source statements, and thus are not considered true SPL/3000 statements. (However, the compiler subsystem commands accepted by SPL/3000 conform to the general formats for all other HP 3000 language translators. For each function performed by more than one translator, the same command name is used; in most cases, the same command parameters also apply. This feature helps users familiar with one translator subsystem to use another.)

### **SYNTAX AND FORMAT**

In describing the syntax and format of compiler subsystem commands, these conventions are used for consistency and clarity:

1. Entries that always appear exactly as shown are designated by UPPERCASE CHARACTERS.
2. Variable entries (such as class names) are indicated by lowercase characters.
3. Optional information is indicated by [brackets]. (However, the user does not enter these brackets as part of the commands.) Where one member in a group of entries *may* be selected and entered by the user, the entire group is surrounded by [brackets].
4. Where one member in a group of entries *must* be selected and entered by the user, the group is surrounded by {braces}.
5. An item or group of items, within brackets or braces, that may be repeated an indefinite number of times is followed by ellipses (. . .).

The general form of a compiler subsystem command is:

`[$]commandname [parameterlist]`

The first dollar-sign (\$) is required, and identifies the command as a compiler subsystem command. It must be the first character in the text portion of the record containing the command. For commands directed to SPL/3000, this dollar sign must appear in Position 1.

The second \$, optional, suppresses transmittal of the command to *newfile* (if a *newfile* is created during compilation). (For commands directed to COBOL/3000, this second \$ must appear in Position 2.)

The *commandname* specifies the function requested. It follows the first \$ (or second \$, if present), with no intervening spaces.

The optional *parameterlist*, if present, specifies various command options. The list is separated from the *commandname* by one or more spaces. Within the list, parameters are separated from each other by commas, optionally followed and/or preceded by spaces. The parameterlist may continue through Position 72 of the source record on which it appears.

The sequence field (Positions 73 through 80) of a record containing a compiler subsystem command also is not part of the command; it may, however, be used for sequence-checking the record during editing and merging operations, as described later.

*Note: Only upper-case letters, and numbers and special characters are used in entering compiler subsystem commands; when lower-case letters are input as part of a command, the compiler interprets them as their upper-case equivalents (except when the lower-case letters are contained within character strings as defined below.)*

## Parameters

Within the *parameterlist*, a parameter may be any of the following four items:

- A character string.
- A symbolic name
- A keyword.
- A keyword with a subparameter.

A *character string* consists of a quotation mark (") that denotes its beginning, optionally followed by one or more alphanumeric characters, followed by another quotation mark that terminates the string. Blank characters (spaces) may be included in the string. Quotation marks within the string are written as double quotation marks (two adjacent quotation marks, " ") to distinguish them from the quotation marks that begin and end the string. A character string consisting only of beginning and terminating quote marks is called an *empty string*.

A *keyword* is a reserved word (with respect to a given command) that consists of a letter followed by one or more letters and/or digits.

A *keyword with subparameter* is a keyword followed by an equal sign, followed by a subparameter consisting of a character string, a symbolic name, or a number. (A *number* consists of one or more decimal digits.) The equal sign can be preceded and/or followed by one or more spaces. The general format is:

*keyword=subparameter*

## Comments

Within any command, *comments* may also be included. A *comment* is generally used to document the purpose of coding or to make notations about program logic. A *comment* is not interpreted as part of the command, and has no effect upon compilation. It is syntactically treated as a space, and can appear in any of these locations:

- Following the *commandname*, separated from it by at least one space.
- Preceding or following any parameter in the *parameterlist*.

A *comment* cannot be embedded *within* a parameter; for instance, it cannot appear within a keyword, preceding or following an equal sign, or within a quoted string. Furthermore, a *comment* cannot be continued from one record to the next.

A *comment* can contain any characters from the ASCII character set. The *comment* must begin with two adjacent less-than signs (<<) and terminate with two adjacent greater-than signs (>>) as delimiters. (Since adjacent greater-than signs terminate a *comment*, they cannot appear within the *comment* itself.) The *comment* may continue through Position 72 of the record on which it appears. (This *comment* feature is provided in addition to the *comment* features of the SPL/3000 language.)

## EXAMPLES

The following examples illustrate various ways in which comments can be included in compiler subsystem commands.

1. Following the command name (\$PAGE) in a command with no parameterlist.

```
$PAGE <<PAGE EJECT,NO TITLE CHANGE.>>
```

2. Following the last parameter in a parameterlist (where the comment effectively appears as a separate field).

```
$SET X1=ON,X2=ON,X3=ON <<SWITCHES 1-3 ON.>>
```

3. Embedded within the parameterlist (preceding the last parameter):

```
$SET X1=ON,X2=ON, <<LAST SW OFF>> X3=OFF
```

## Continuation Records

When the length of a command exceeds one physical record (source card or entry line), the user can enter an ampersand (&) as the last non-blank character of this record and continue the command on the next record (called a *continuation record*). The text portion of the continuation record, in turn, must begin with a dollar sign in Position 1. (Even when a command begins with the double dollar sign (\$\$), its continuation records still begin only with a single dollar sign.)

*Note: A subsystem command record must never be separated from its continuation record by a SPL/3000 source record.*

In continuing a command onto another record, the user cannot divide a primary command element (a *command name*, *keyword*, *subparameter* (including quoted strings), or *comment*) — no primary element is allowed to span more than one line.

When a command containing one or more continuation records is encountered by the compiler, each continuation record is concatenated (beginning with the character following the \$) to the preceding record; each \$ and continuation ampersand is replaced by a space.

## EXAMPLE

The following \$CONTROL command is continued onto a second record:

```
$CONTROL LIST, SOURCE, WARN, MAP, &  
$CODE, LINES=36.
```

It is interpreted as:

```
$CONTROL LIST, SOURCE, WARN, MAP, CODE, LINES=36
```

Even though a comment cannot be divided over more than one line, extensive commentary text requiring several lines can be entered by enclosing it within separate comments that each occupy one line.

## EXAMPLE

The following \$CONTROL command includes commentary text spread over three lines.

```
$CONTROL NOWARN <<WARNING MESSAGES ON TRIVIAL ERRORS>>&  
$ <<WILL NOT BE LISTED. BUT MESSAGES ON>>&  
$ <<FATAL ERRORS WILL APPEAR.>>
```

## Effects of Commands

A command does not take effect until all of its parameters have been interpreted. Thus, a command that suppresses source listing output will not affect the listing of any continuation records within the command itself. Parameters are interpreted from left to right. In some cases, parameters may be redundant or supersede previous parameters within the same command. In other cases, certain parameters are allowed only once within a command.

## EXAMPLE

In the following \$CONTROL command, the redundant parameters LIST and NOLIST each appear twice:

```
$CONTROL LIST, NOLIST, NOLIST, LIST
```

Because the final redundant parameter in any \$CONTROL command always takes effect, the above command is equivalent to:

```
$CONTROL LIST
```

## COMMAND SUMMARY

A summary of the compiler subsystem commands for SPL/3000 appears in Table C-1. (Only the *commandnames* are shown; the *parameterlists* are described later.)

**Table C-1. Compiler Subsystem Command Summary**

Command	Purpose
\$CONTROL	Restricts access to listfile; suppresses source text, object code, and symbol table listing; suppresses warning messages; sets maximum number of lines listed per page; sets maximum number of severe errors allowed; starts a new segment; initializes the USL file; lists mnemonics for code generated; assigns a name to the outer block; allows subprogram compilation; makes outer block privileged; makes outer block uncallable; lists address mode and displacement of variables declared.
\$IF	Interrogates software switches for conditional compilation.
\$SET	Sets software switches for conditional compilation.
\$TITLE	Establishes or changes page title on listing.
\$PAGE	Establishes or changes page title, and ejects page.
\$EDIT	Specifies editing options during merging (omitting sections of old source program and/or re-numbering sequence fields).

## LISTING AND COMPILATION OPTIONS (\$CONTROL COMMAND)

When the user invokes the compiler without specifying compiler subsystem commands, several listing control, error message, and object-file formulation options take effect by default:

1. The compiler is given unrestricted access to *listfile*.
2. All source records (passed to the compiler by its editor) are listed unless the *listfile* and primary input file (normally the *textfile*) are assigned to the same terminal.
3. Warning messages are listed.
4. Listing of the symbol table is suppressed.
5. Listing of the object code generated is suppressed.
6. The number of lines appearing on each printed page (output to *listfile*) is a maximum of 60.



7. The maximum number of severe errors allowed before compilation is terminated is 100.
8. SPL/3000 is invoked in the *program* (rather than *subprogram*) mode.
9. Segment name is SEG'.
10. Outer block name is OB'.
11. Mnemonic listing suppressed.
12. USL file not initialized unless new file.
13. Callable, non-privileged outer block.

The above default options can be overridden by entering the \$CONTROL compiler subsystem command. This command allows the user to restrict the compiler's access to the *listfile*; suppress source record listings; produce object code and symbol table listings; re-specify the maximum number of lines per printed page; and otherwise alter the normal compiler control options. The format of the \$CONTROL command is:

**[\$]CONTROL parameterlist**

Each parameter in the *parameterlist* specifies a different option: the options are described below. Unless otherwise noted, each parameter can appear in a \$CONTROL command placed anywhere in the source input. Each parameter remains in effect until *explicitly* cancelled by an opposing parameter (for example, NOLIST cancelling LIST), or until access to the compiler terminates. In any \$CONTROL command, the *parameterlist* (containing at least one parameter) is always required. Within the *parameterlist*, the parameters can appear in any order. In the descriptions below, default parameters are shown in boldface type.

Parameter	Option Requested
LIST	Allows the compiler unrestricted access to <i>listfile</i> , permitting the SOURCE, MAP, CODE, and LINES listing parameters described below to take effect when issued. The LIST parameter remains in effect until a \$CONTROL command specifying the NOLIST parameter (described below) is encountered. When neither LIST nor NOLIST is specified at the beginning of the compilation, LIST takes effect by default.
NOLIST	Allows <i>only</i> source records that contain errors, appropriate error messages, and subsystem initiation and completion messages to be written to the <i>listfile</i> . NOLIST remains in effect until a \$CONTROL command specifying LIST appears.
SOURCE	Requests listing of all source records input (as edited by the compiler's editor) while LIST is also in effect. When the compiler is invoked with <i>listfile</i> and the primary input file assigned to the same terminal, NOSOURCE is initially the default. In all other cases, SOURCE is initially in effect as the default.
NOSOURCE	Suppresses the listing of source text, cancelling the effect of any previous SOURCE parameter. NOSOURCE remains in effect until SOURCE is subsequently encountered.

Parameter	Option Requested
WARN	Permits the reporting of doubtful minor error conditions in the source input. These reports are transmitted to <i>listfile</i> in the form of warning messages. The WARN parameter remains in effect until a \$CONTROL command specifying the NOWARN parameter (described below) is encountered. When neither WARN nor NOWARN has been specified, WARN takes effect by default.
	<i>Note: NOLIST does not suppress warning messages — they are suppressed solely by NOWARN.</i>
NOWARN	Suppresses warning messages; cancels the effect of any previous WARN parameter. The NOWARN parameter remains in effect until a \$CONTROL command specifying WARN appears.
MAP	Requests printing of user-defined symbol following the listing of the source text (if LIST is in effect). The MAP parameter remains in effect until the NOMAP PARAMETER (described below) is encountered. When neither MAP nor NOMAP is specified at the beginning of the compilation, NOMAP is assumed by default.
NOMAP	Suppresses printing of user-defined symbols, cancelling effect of any previous MAP parameter. The NOMAP parameter remains in effect until MAP is again encountered.
CODE	Requests listing of object code generated following the listing of the source text (if LIST is in effect). The CODE parameter remains in effect until the NOCODE parameter (described below) is encountered. When neither CODE nor NOCODE is specified, NOCODE is assumed by default.
NOCODE	Suppresses listing of object code, cancelling effect of any previous CODE parameter. The NOCODE parameter remains in effect until a CODE parameter is again encountered.
LINES=nnnn	Limits lines printed on <i>listfile</i> to <i>nnnn</i> lines per page. Whenever the next line sent to <i>listfile</i> would overflow the line count ( <i>nnnn</i> ), the page is ejected and the standard page heading and two blank lines are printed at the top of the next page, followed by the line to be transmitted. (A page heading and its following two blank lines are counted against the total line count, <i>nnnn</i> .) The subparameter <i>nnnn</i> is an integer ranging from 10 to 9999. The LINES- <i>nnnn</i> parameter remains in effect until another LINES=nnnn parameter appears. If this parameter is omitted, the default value assigned is:  60 lines per page, for listing output through devices other than terminals.  32767 lines per page, for listings output through terminals.

Parameter	Option Requested
ERRORS=nnn	Sets the maximum number of severe errors allowed during compilation to <i>nnn</i> ; if this limit is exceeded, compilation terminates and the <i>uslfile</i> is unchanged. (If the limit specified has already been exceeded when this ERRORS=nnn parameter is encountered, compilation terminates at this point.) If the ERRORS=nnn parameter is omitted, <i>nnn</i> is set to 100 by default.
USLINIT	Initializes the <i>uslfile</i> to empty status prior to generation of object code. If no <i>uslfile</i> is specified by the user (and is thus supplied by the compiler through default), or if the user supplies a <i>uslfile</i> whose contents are obviously incorrect, the compiler automatically initializes the <i>uslfile</i> to empty status whether or not USLINIT is specified.
SEGMENT=segname	Starts a new segment with the specified <i>segname</i> . The <i>segname</i> can consist of up to 15 alphanumeric characters, starting with an alphabetic character, and may contain apostrophes (').
ADR	After each declaration, send a record to the <i>listfile</i> (if LIST is in effect) showing the addressing mode and displacement of the variables declared. This is turned off by NOLIST.
INNERLIST	After each line of statement, sends an innerlist of unoptimized code (using mnemonics) emitted by the compiler to the <i>listfile</i> (if LIST is in effect). This is turned off by NOLIST.
MAIN=program-name	Assigns the specified name to the main program. Format for program names is the same as for segment names. Replaces the heading (columns 13-27 inclusive) starting with page 2.
UNCALLABLE	Makes the outer block entry point uncallable (i.e., can only be called by code running in privileged mode). This command must be at the beginning of the source file.
PRIVILEGED	Makes the code segment containing the outer block privileged. This command must be at the beginning of the program.
SUBPROGRAM [( <i>proc</i> [, <i>proc</i> ] . . .)]	

Where *proc* is a procedure name or a procedure name followed by an asterisk (\*). This command places the compiler in subprogram mode and must occur at the beginning of a compilation.

If no parameters are specified, all of the procedures in the merged source program are compiled, but not the outer block or main program, if any.

If procedure parameters appear, only those procedures specified are compiled; all others are skipped. In addition, procedure names followed by an asterisk (\*) are compiled with LIST, CODE, and MAP options on. Those without \* are compiled, but not listed. The asterisk mechanism is overridden by explicit CONTROL commands specifying LIST, ADR, etc.

The default mode is program mode, not subprogram mode.

Even in subprogram mode, global declarations and OPTION FORWARD and EXTERNAL procedure declarations must be included in the source file, if they are to be referenced by the procedures being compiled. The compiler includes these items in its symbol table, but does not allocate any space. All INTERNAL procedures and secondary entry points should be declared OPTION FORWARD.

Compiler commands are recognized at any point in the source file. For segmented programs, the segmentation scheme should be preserved in the subprogram mode. The compiler gives procedures the last segment name declared and links each procedure to all other procedures in the same USL file which have the same segment name, even those resulting from a previous compile. The compiler also automatically CEASEs any existing procedures in the file with the same procedure name as one being currently compiled, except for INTERNAL procedures.

*EXAMPLE:*

```
$CONTROL SUBPROGRAM
    Compiles all procedures.
$CONTROL SUBPROGRAM (PROC1, PROC2*)
    Compiles PROC1 without listing and PROC2 with listing.
```

The default parameters of CONTROL for SPL/3000 are:

```
LIST
WARN
MAP off
ERRORS=100 (decimal)
NOCODE
SEGMENT=SEG'
MAIN=OB'
program mode, rather than subprogram mode
ADR off
INNERLIST off
LINES=60 (decimal)
USL file not initialized, unless new uslfile.
Callable, non-privileged outer block.
```

## EXAMPLES

The following \$CONTROL command requests unrestricted access to *listfile*; listing of all source text, symbol table information, and object code; suppression of warning messages (but not *error* messages). By default, the maximum number of lines per printed page is limited to 60, the maximum number of errors allowed is 100, the *usfile* supplied by the user is not initialized to empty status, and SPL/3000 is not placed in subprogram mode.

```
$CONTROL LIST,SOURCE,MAP,CODE,NOWARN
```

The following \$CONTROL command illustrates the default values for the command parameters; it produces the same effect as if no \$CONTROL command were entered:

```
$CONTROL LIST,SOURCE,WARN,NOMAP,NOCODE,LINES=60,ERRORS=100
```

## CONDITIONAL COMPILATION (\$IF COMMAND)

Generally, when the user submits a program to the compiler, he wants to compile the entire program. But, he may occasionally wish to compile only one or more portions of his program. He can request such *conditional compilation* by delimiting the source code to be compiled (or omitted from compilation) with a series of \$IF compiler subsystem commands. These \$IF commands interrogate any of ten compiler toggle switches, named X0 through X9, inclusive. (These switches are set *on* or *off* by the \$SET compiler subsystem command described later.) Thus, a \$IF command can direct the compiler to compile or ignore all source code between *this* \$IF command and the next \$IF command encountered, *if* a particular relation is true or false.

The format of the \$IF command is:

$$\$[\$]IF [X_n = \begin{Bmatrix} \text{OFF} \\ \text{ON} \end{Bmatrix}]$$

The parameters and their resultant options are:

Parameter	Option
Xn	The letter X, followed by a digit (n) from 0 to 9 that specifies the name of the switch to be tested — for example, X3. Spaces between X and n are not allowed.
OFF } ON }	The state that the switch is to be tested for in determining if the statements following the \$IF command are to be compiled. If the relation is <i>false</i> (the switch is not in the state specified by this parameter), the following source records (except \$EDIT, \$PAGE and \$TITLE commands) are ignored until another \$IF command is encountered. If the relation is <i>true</i> , succeeding source records are compiled normally.

A \$IF command can appear anywhere in the source text. The appearance of a \$IF command always terminates the influence of any preceding \$IF command. When a \$IF command is entered and no parameter list is included, the following text is compiled in the normal way but the effect of any *previous* \$IF command is cancelled, regardless of whether conditional compilation occurs or is suspended as a result of a \$IF command.

1. \$EDIT, \$PAGE, \$TITLE and \$IF commands within the range of this \$IF command are interpreted and executed.
2. Normally-listable source text (regardless of whether or not it is compiled) is listed if the \$CONTROL command options LIST and SOURCE are in effect.

The *textfile-masterfile* merging operation and transmission of merged/edited text to the *newfile* are not affected by \$IF commands. (Merging and editing are described in the discussion of the \$EDIT command.)

An example illustrating use of the \$IF command is presented under the discussion of the \$SET command below.

## SOFTWARE SWITCHES FOR CONDITIONAL COMPILATION (\$SET COMMAND)

When the compiler is invoked, all ten software toggle switches are initially turned *off*. The user can turn them *on* (and *off* again) by using the \$SET command.

$$\$[\$]SET [Xn= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} OFF \\ ON \end{array} \right\} [, Xn= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} OFF \\ ON \end{array} \right\} ] \dots ]$$

The parameters and options are:

Parameter	Option
Xn	The letter X followed by a digit (n) from 0 to 9 that specifies the name of the switch to be set.
OFF } ON }	The state to which the switch is to be set. Either OFF or ON (but not both) must be specified for each Xn parameter.

A \$SET command can appear anywhere in the source text. If a \$SET command that contains no parameter list is encountered, all ten switches are turned off. If more than one parameter appears in a \$SET command, each parameter must be separated from its predecessor by a comma.

#### EXAMPLE

In the following source text, switches X4 and X5 are set on and interrogated, with the results indicated by the comments:

```

      .
      .
$SET  X4=ON, X5=ON      <<SETS SWITCHES X4 AND X5 ON.>>
      .
      .
$IF   X4=ON             <<REQUESTS COMPILATION OF SOURCE BLOCK 1.>>
      .
      .
      (SOURCE BLOCK 1)
$IF   X5=OFF            <<REQUESTS THAT SOURCE BLOCK 2 BE IGNORED>>&
      .                  <<BY CANCELLING PREVIOUS $IF COMMAND.>>
      .
      (SOURCE BLOCK 2)
      .
      .
$IF   .                  <<CANCELS PREVIOUS $IF COMMANDS SO THAT>>&
$      .                  <<SOURCE BLOCK 3 IS COMPILED.>>
      .
      .
      (SOURCE BLOCK 3)

```

## PAGE TITLE IN STANDARD LISTING (\$TITLE COMMAND)

On each page of output listed during compilation, a standard heading appears. Positions 29 through 132 of this heading are reserved for a title (usually describing the page's content), optionally specified with the \$TITLE compiler subsystem command.

```
$($)TITLE [string [,string] . . . ]
```

Each *string* parameter is a character string (bounded by quotation marks) that is combined with any other strings specified to form the title. In forming the title, the strings are stripped of their delimiting quotation marks, they are then concatenated from left to right. The entire parameter list can specify up to 104 characters, including spaces within the string but excluding delimiters and spaces between the strings. If the title contains fewer than 104 characters, the unused portion is filled to the right with spaces. If no *string* parameters are present in the \$TITLE command, or if no \$TITLE command (or \$PAGE command with title specification, discussed below) is entered, the title portion of the heading is blank. When a new \$TITLE command is encountered, it supersedes any previously specified title from that point on.

When a \$TITLE command is interpreted and the NOLIST parameter of the \$CONTROL command is in effect, title specification or replacement occurs even when the \$TITLE command appears within the range of an \$IF command whose relation is evaluated as false.

## EXAMPLE

Consider the following \$TITLE command, occupying two lines of code:

```
$TITLE "THE PROGRAM TITLE IS ", &  
$"RUN III."
```

This command results in the following entry in the title field of the standard page heading:

```
THE PROGRAM TITLE IS RUN III.
```

## PAGE TITLE AND EJECTION (\$PAGE COMMAND)

The user can specify a program title (as with the \$TITLE command) together with page ejection by entering the \$PAGE command. This allows varied listing formats. For example, individual sections of the program can be listed starting on a new page, and each section can have its own descriptive title. The \$PAGE command format is:

```
~ $($)PAGE [string [,string] . . . ]
```



Each string parameter has the same format, meaning, result, and constraints as in the \$TITLE command. If no parameter is present in the \$PAGE command, the current title (assigned by a previous \$TITLE or \$PAGE command) or a blank title (if no previous \$TITLE or \$PAGE command occurred) remains in effect.

Following title specification or replacement, if the LIST parameter of the \$CONTROL command is in effect, this action occurs:

1. The current page is ejected.
2. The standard page heading (including the new title) is printed, followed by two blank lines.

If no *string* was specified in the \$PAGE command and LIST is in effect, the current page is ejected and the standard page heading (including the old title) is printed, followed by two blank lines.

If LIST is not in effect, specified title replacement occurs, but no printing or page eject takes place. Any new title will appear, however, after LIST is requested.

The \$PAGE command itself is never listed.

## SOURCE TEXT MERGING AND EDITING (\$EDIT COMMAND)

The user can request the following merging and editing operations:

1. Merge corrections or additional source text (on *textfile*) with an existing source program and commands (on *masterfile*) to produce a new source program and commands. This new input is compiled and optionally copied to *newfile*, which can be saved for recycling through an MPE/3000 :FILE command.
2. Check source-record sequence numbers for ascending order.
3. Omit sections of the old source program during merging.
4. Re-number the sequence fields of the records in the new, merged source program.

The editing done by the compiler is limited to linear source text modification. Extensive or more sophisticated editing is possible with the HP 3000 Text Editor, EDIT/3000.

## Merging

Merging is requested by simply equating actual file names to the *textfile*, *masterfile*, and (optionally) *newfile* formal designators (SPLTEXT, SPLMAST, and SPLNEW, respectively). This equating is done by using the MPE/3000 :SPL command when the compiler is invoked. Use of this command is described in detail in *HP 3000 Multiprogramming Executive Operating System (03000-90005)*. An example appears below:

### EXAMPLE

To specify merging of a *textfile* TFILE with a *masterfile* MFILE, the user could enter the following :SPL command. The merged source text is copied to the *newfile* NFILE, with the object code and listing output written to the default files \$NEWPASS and \$STDLIST, respectively.

```
:SPL TFILE, ,MFILE ,NFILE
```

Prior to merging, the records in both *textfile* and *masterfile* must be arranged in ascending order as dictated by their sequence fields — that is, the value of the sequence field on any record, or it must be blank. (The order of sequencing is based on the ASCII Collating Sequence. There are no restrictions regarding blank sequence fields — the sequence fields of some or all of the records in either *textfile*, *masterfile*, or both files can be blank, and such records can appear anywhere in either file.

The merging operation is also based on ascending order of sequence fields, according to the ASCII Collating Sequence. During merging, the sequence fields of the records in both files are checked for ascending order. If their order is improper, the offending records are skipped during merging and appropriate diagnostic messages are sent to *listfile*. During each comparison step in merging, one record is read from each file and these records are compared, with one of three results:

1. If the values of the sequence fields of the *masterfile* and *textfile* records are equal, then the *textfile* record is compiled and (optionally) passed to *newfile*; the *masterfile* record is ignored; and one more record is read from each file for the next comparison.
2. If the value of the sequence-field of the *masterfile* record is less than that of the *textfile* record, the *masterfile* record is compiled and (optionally) passed to *newfile*; the *textfile* record is retained for comparison with the next *masterfile* record.
3. If the value of the sequence field of the *textfile* record is less than that of the *masterfile* record, the *textfile* record is compiled and (optionally) passed to *newfile*; the *masterfile* record is retained for comparison with the next *textfile* record.

During merging, a record with a blank sequence field is assumed to have the same sequence field as that of the *last* record with a non-blank sequence field read from the same file (or a null sequence field, if no record with a non-blank sequence field has yet been encountered in the file). Thus, a group of one or more records with blank sequence fields residing on *masterfile* are never replaced by records from *textfile*; they can only be deleted through use of the \$EDIT command, as explained later.

Records from *masterfile* that are replaced during merging and thus neither compiled nor sent to *newfile* are not listed during compilation.

When an end-of-file condition is encountered on either *textfile* or *masterfile*, merging terminates (except for the continuing influence of an unterminated VOID parameter in an \$EDIT command, as discussed later). At this point, the subsequent records on the remaining file are checked for proper sequence, compiled, and (optionally) passed to *newfile*. (However, *masterfile* records within the range of a VOID parameter are neither compiled nor sent to *newfile*.)

The sequence field values of records transmitted to *newfile* are not normally changed by the merging operation. However, the user can request the assignment of new sequence characters by using the \$EDIT command.

### Checking Sequence Fields

The presence of a *masterfile* during compilation implicitly requests checking of source records for proper sequence. Thus, when the user specifies both *textfile* and *masterfile* as input files for the compiler, or when he specifies *masterfile* alone, sequence-checking is done automatically on both files. But when the user specifies *textfile* as the only input file, sequence checking does not occur. Therefore, when the user wants source input sequence-checked but does not require merging of two input files, he can transmit the input from either the *textfile* or the *masterfile* and equate the unused file to \$NULL.

### EXAMPLE

The user could compile a program from the *textfile* SOURCE (with no *masterfile* input) and implicitly request sequence checking with the following command:

```
:SPL SOURCE, , $NULL
```

### Editing

Editing operations during merging consist of omitting sections of the old source program (residing on *masterfile*) and/or re-numbering the sequence fields of the new, merged source program (residing on *newfile*). Both of these operations are requested through the \$EDIT command, written in the following format:

```
[$] EDIT [VOID=sequencevalue]  
        [ ,SEQNUM=sequencenumber ]  
        [ ,NOSEQ  
        [ ,INC=incnumber ]
```

The parameters and options are as follows: the parameters can be specified in any order.

Parameter	Option
VOID=sequencevalue	<p>Requests the compiler to bypass (during merging) all records on <i>masterfile</i> whose sequence fields contain a value less than or equal to <i>sequencevalue</i>, plus any subsequent records with blank sequence fields. This request remains in effect until a <i>masterfile</i> record with a sequence-field value higher than <i>sequencevalue</i> is encountered. The VOID request is initially disabled when the compiler is invoked.</p> <p>The <i>sequencevalue</i> subparameter can be either a legal sequence number or a character string. If <i>sequencevalue</i> is less than eight characters, SPL/3000 left-fills sequence numbers with ASCII zeros and sequence character strings with spaces.</p>
SEQNUM=sequencenumber	<p>Requests re-numbering of the merged source records on <i>newfile</i>, beginning with the value specified by the <i>sequencenumber</i> sub-parameter; this value replaces the sequence number of the next record sent to <i>newfile</i>. The sequence number of each succeeding record is incremented according to the value specified by the INC parameter (or its default), described below. If the <i>SEQNUM=sequencenumber</i> parameter is present but <i>newfile</i> does not exist, the re-numbering request is ignored. If this parameter is present, and <i>newfile</i> exists, the re-numbering request remains in effect until an \$EDIT command with the NOSEQ parameter is encountered. When the merged output is listed, records actually transmitted to <i>newfile</i> appear with the new sequence numbers but records not sent to <i>newfile</i> appear with blank sequence fields. The re-sequencing request is initially disabled when the compiler is invoked.</p> <p>The <i>sequencenumber</i> sub-parameter can be a legal sequence number of one to eight digits. If less than eight digits, SPL/3000 left-fills this value with ASCII zeros.</p>
NOSEQ	<p>Suspend re-numbering of merged records on <i>newfile</i>; current sequence numbers are retained. If neither SEQNUM nor NOSEQ are specified, NOSEQ takes effect by default until superseded by SEQNUM.</p>

Parameter	Option
INC=incnumber	Sets increment by which records sent to newfile are re-numbered <i>if</i> SEQNUM is in effect. The increment is specified by <i>incnumber</i> , which can be a value ranging from 1 through 99999999. Notice, however, that very large increments are of limited value, since they may cause the eight-digit sequence number to overflow. Re-numbering only occurs if SEQNUM is specified (or if the last parameter is not overridden by a NOSEQ parameter) <i>and</i> a <i>newfile</i> exists. If SEQNUM is specified but INC is not, the sequence number is incremented by the default value of 1000 for each succeeding record; this default value applies until an INC parameter specifying a new value is encountered.

\$EDIT commands are normally input from *textfile*. (Their input from *masterfile* is allowed, but is not recommended since any \$EDIT command containing a VOID parameter on *masterfile* could void its own continuation records.) \$EDIT commands themselves are never sent to *newfile*; thus, the command form \$\$EDIT . . . . , while permitted, is redundant.

While sequence fields are allowed (and usually necessary) on records containing \$EDIT commands, continuation records for such commands should have blank sequence fields.

During merging, a group of one or more *masterfile* records with blank sequence fields are never replaced by lines from *textfile*; they can only be deleted by an \$EDIT command with a VOID=*sequencevalue* parameter at least as great as the last non-blank sequence field preceding the group. In this case, the entire group of masterfile records with blank sequence number fields is deleted.

Since voided records are never passed to the *uslfile* or *newfile*, their sequence is never checked, and they never generate an out-of-sequence diagnostic message.

A VOID parameter does not affect records in *textfile*.

Any *masterfile* record replaced by a *textfile* record is treated as if voided, except that following records with blank sequence fields are not also voided. If a replaced record would have been out-of-sequence, the *textfile* record that replaces it produces an out-of-sequence diagnostic message.

In general, whenever a record sent to *newfile* has a non-blank sequence field lower in value than that of the last record with a non-blank sequence field, a diagnostic message is printed.

## EXAMPLE

The user wants to merge text input from the standard input device (default value for *textfile*, designated by \$STDIN) with an old program on the file OLDPROG, creating new source input on the file NEWPROG. He wants to re-number the merged source records on NEWPROG beginning with the value 50, incrementing the sequence number of each subsequent record by 10. After logging on, the user enters:

```
:SPL , , , OLDPROG, NEWPROG
.
.
.
$EDIT SEQNUM=50, INC=10  <<SPECIFIES EDITING PARAMETERS.>>
.
.
.
(New text or corrections to be merged with old program.)
.
.
.
```

## TRACE COMMAND

\$TRACE[*program-unit*] ,*identifier* [,*identifier*] , . . .

The TRACE command specifies which identifiers within the outer block (no program-unit name means the main program or outer block) or procedures of a program will be traced at run-time. The tracing is implemented through calls to the SYMBOL TRACE. This subsystem allows references to variables, arrays, pointers, labels, and procedures to be monitored with appropriate printout and breakpoints. For further details, see the *HP 3000 SYMBOL TRACE (03000-90015)*.

# APPENDIX D

## MPE/3000 Subsystem Commands

User access to the compiler is provided by three MPE/3000 commands. The :SPL command compiles only; the :SPLPREP command compiles and prepares; and the :SPLGO command compiles, prepares, and executes.

In the command descriptions below, the parameters all specify files; the actual file designator specified is equated to the formal file designator that corresponds to that parameter. If no parameter is specified, a default actual file designator is assigned for the formal file designator. Brackets around a parameter or list of parameters indicate an optional item. Trailing commas must be omitted. The default actual file designators depend upon whether the context is a session or a batch job. Consult the *HP 3000 Multiprogramming Executive Operating System (03000-90005)* for further details.

### SPL—COMPILE ONLY

:SPL [*textfile*] {', *uslfile*} {'*listfile*} {'*masterfile*} {'*newfile*}

:SPL compiles a source program from the *textfile*, with code generated to the *uslfile*, listing output on the *listfile*, and optional editing with *masterfile* and *newfile*. See the \$EDIT compiler command for use of *masterfile* and *newfile*.

Parameter	Use	Formal File Designator	Default Actual Designator
<i>textfile</i>	Source program, corrections, compiler commands.	SPLTEXT	\$STDIN
<i>listfile</i>	Output listing.	SPLLIST	\$STDLIST
<i>uslfile</i>	Object code output	SPLUSL	\$NEWPASS/\$OLDPASS
<i>masterfile</i>	Old text for edit.	SPLMAST	\$NULL
<i>newfile</i>	New text for edit.	SPLNEW	\$NULL

The code generated by :SPL can be passed to the Segmenter for preparation with :PREP through the *uslfile*. Also the *uslfile* can be saved immediately following :SPL with the SAVE command referring to \$OLDPASS.

**EXAMPLE:**

:SPL	Uses all default files, no editing.
:SPL PRQ27	Compiles from user textfile.
:SPL , , , PRQ27, PRQ28	Compiles from standard input, editing masterfile PRQ27 and storing the new program on newfile PRQ28.
:SAVE SCUSL = \$OLDPASS	

**SPLPREP—COMPILE AND PREPARE**

:SPLPREP [*textfile*] {'*progfile*} {'*listfile*} {'*masterfile*} {'*newfile*}

:SPLPREP compiles from *textfile* into a temporary *uslfile* created by the compiler, with output listing on *listfile* and optional editing from *masterfile* to *newfile*. It then prepares the program from the *uslfile* to *profile*. Profile can then be executed using the :RUN command. The *uslfile* is still available after the command in \$OLDPASS, unless the default is taken for *profile*.

All parameters except *progfile* are the same as :SPL.

Parameter	Use	Formal File Designator	Default Actual Designator
<i>progfile</i>	Destination for runnable program.	SPLPROG	\$NEWPASS

**EXAMPLE:**

:SPLPREP	Uses all default files, no editing.
:SPLPREP SPRING, SUMMER	
:SPLPREP CORRECT , , , SPRING5, SPRING6	

**SPLGO—COMPILE, PREPARE, AND EXECUTE**

:SPLGO [*textfile*] {'*listfile*} {'*masterfile*} {'*newfile*}

:SPLGO compiles a source program from *textfile*, with output listing on *listfile*, and optional editing from *masterfile* to *newfile*. Both the *uslfile* used for object code and the *progfile* used for preparing and execution are temporary files created by the command. After the program runs, the *progfile* is still available in \$OLDPASS, assuming the program itself did not open a \$NEWPASS. All of the parameters are the same as described for :SPL.

**EXAMPLE:**

:SPLGO	
:SPLGO TEXT2A, LP, OLDER, NEWER	



# **APPENDIX E**

## **HP 3000 Machine Instructions**

This appendix consists of four parts:

Alphabetic listing of all HP 3000 machine instructions by mnemonic.

HP 3000 consolidated coding sheet.

Opcode formats for ASSEMBLE statement.

Functional cross-reference of all HP 3000 machine instructions.

### ALPHABETICAL LISTING OF INSTRUCTIONS

Mnemonic	Function	Format
ADAX	Add A to X	2
ADBX	Add B to X	2
ADD	Add	2
ADDI	Add immediate	4a
ADDM	Add memory	1a
ADDS	Add to S	7
ADXA	Add X to A	2
ADXB	Add X to B	2
ADXI	Add immediate to X	4a
AND	And, logical	2
ANDI	Logical AND immediate	7
ASL	Arithmetic shift left	3b
ASR	Arithmetic shift right	3b
BCC	Branch on Condition Code	1d
BCY	Branch on carry	3a
BE	Branch on equals	
BG	Branch on greater than	
BGE	Branch on greater than or equal	See BCC
BL	Branch on less than	
BLE	Branch on less than or equal	
BN	Branch on next equal	
BANCY	Branch on no carry	3a
BNOV	Branch on no overflow	3a
BOV	Branch on overflow	3a
BR	Branch	1c
BRE	Branch on TOS even	3a

Mnemonic	Function	Format
BRO	Branch on TOS odd	3a
BTST	Test byte on TOS	2
CAB	Rotate ABC	2
CIO	Control I/O	6
CMD	Command	6
CMP	Compare	2
CMPB	Compare bytes	2
CMPI	Compare immediate	4a
CMPM	Compare memory	1a
CMPN	Compare negative immediate	4a
CPRB	Compare range and branch	3a
CSL	Circular shift left	3b
CSR	Circular shift right	3b
DABZ	Decrement A, branch if zero	3a
DADD	Double add	2
DASL	Double arithmetic shift left	3b
DASR	Double arithmetic shift right	3b
DCMP	Double compare	2
DCSL	Double circular shift left	3b
DCSR	Double circular shift right	3b
DDEL	Double delete	2
DDUP	Double duplicate	2
DECA	Decrement A	2
DECB	Decrement B	2
DECM	Decrement memory	1b
DECX	Decrement X	2
DEL	Delete A	2
DELB	Delete B	2
DFLT	Double float	2
DIV	Divide	2
DIVI	Divide immediate	4a
DIVL	Divide Long	2
DLSL	Double logical shift left	3b
DLSR	Double logical shift right	3b
DNEG	Double negate	2
DPF	Deposit field	4b
DSUB	Double subtract	2
DTST	Test double word on TOS	2
DUP	Duplicate A	2
DXBZ	Decrement X, branch if zero	3a
DXCH	Double exchange	2
DZRO	Double push zero	2
EXF	Extract field	4b
EXIT	Procedure and interrupt exit	7
FADD	Floating add	2
FCMP	Floating compare	2
FDIV	Floating divide	2
FIXR	Fix and round	2
FIXT	Fix and truncate	2
FLT	Float	2
FMPY	Floating multiply	2
FNEC	Floating negate	2

Mnemonic	Function	Format
FSUB	Floating subtract	2
HALT	Halt	6
IABZ	Increment A, branch if zero	3a
INCA	Increment A	2
INCB	Increment B	2
INCM	Increment memory	1b
INCX	Increment index	2
IXBZ	Increment X, branch if zero	3a
LADD	Logical add	2
LCMP	Logical compare	2
LDB	Load byte	1b
LDD	Load double	1b
LDI	Load immediate	4a
LDIV	Logical divide	2
LDNI	Load negative immediate	4a
LDPN	Load double from program, negative	7
LDPP	Load double from program, positive	7
LDX	Load Index	1a
LDXA	Load X onto stack	2
LDXB	Load X into B	2
LDXI	Load X immediate	4a
LDXN	Load X negative immediate	4a
LLBL	Load Label	7
LLSH	Linked list search	5
LMPY	Logical multiply	2
LOAD	Load	1a
LRA	Load relative address	1a
LSL	Logical shift left	3b
LSR	Logical shift right	3b
LSUB	Logical subtract	2
MOVE	Move words	8a
MPY	Multiply	2
MPYI	Multiply immediate	4a
MPYL	Multiply Long	2
MPYM	Multiply memory	1a
MTBA	Modify, Test, Branch, A	1e
MTBX	Modify, Test, Branch, X	1e
MVB	Move bytes	8a
MVBL	Move from DB+ to DL+	8c
MVBW	Move bytes while	8b
MVLB	Move from DL+ to DB+	8c
NEG	Negate	2
NOP	No operation	2
NOT	One's complement	2
OR	Or, logical	2
ORI	Logical OR immediate	7
PAUS	Pause	6
PCAL	Procedure call	7
PLDA	Privileged load from absolute address	5
PSHR	Push registers	4a
PSTA	Privileged store into absolute address	5
RIO	Read I/O	6

Mnemonic	Function	Format
RMSK	Read Mask	6
RSW	Read Switch register	5
SBXI	Subtract immediate from X	7
SCAL	Subroutine Call	7
SCAN	Scan bits	3b
SCU	Scan until	8c
SCW	Scan while	8c
SED	Set enable/disable external interrupts	6
SETR	Set registers	4a
SIN	Set interrupt	6
SIO	Start I/O	6
SIRF	Set external interrupt reference flag	6
SMSK	Set Mask	6
STAX	Store A into X	2
STB	Store byte	1b
STBX	Store B into X	2
STD	Store double	1b
STOR	Store	1a
SUB	Subtract	2
SUBI	Subtract immediate	4a
SUBM	Subtract memory	1a
SUBS	Subtract from S	7
SXIT	Subroutine exit	7
TASL	Triple arithmetic shift left	3b
TASR	Triple arithmetic shift right	3b
TBA	Test, branch, A	1e
TBC	Test bit and set condition code	3b
TBX	Test, branch, X	1e
TCBC	Test and complement bit and set CC	3b
TEST	Test TOS	2
TIO	Test I/O	6
TNSL	Triple normalizing shift left	3b
TRBC	Test and reset bit, set condition code	3b
TSBC	Test, set bit, set condition code	3b
TSBM	Test and set bit in memory	3b
WIO	Write I/O	6
XAX	Exchange A and X	2
XBX	Exchange B and X	2
XCH	Exchange A and B	2
XCHD	Exchange DB	6
XEQ	Execute	6
XOR	Exclusive or, logical	2
XORI	Logical Exclusive OR immediate	7
ZERO	Push zero	2
ZROB	Zero B	2
ZROX	Zero X	2

५-७

[illegible]

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
02	SUB	OPCODE	2	00	MINI OPS			14	RSW	RESERVED			0		
								14	LLSH	RESERVED			1		
								15	PLDA	RESERVED			0		
								15	PSTA	RESERVED			1		
				01	SPARE				IMMEDIATE OPERAND N						
				02	LDI				" " "						
				03	LDX1				" " "						
				04	CMP1				" " "						
				05	ADD1				" " "						
				06	SUB1				" " "						
				07	MPY1				" " "						
				10	DIV1				" " "						
				11	PSHR			DB	DL	Z	STA	X	Q	S	
				12	LDNI				IMMEDIATE OPERAND N						
				13	LDXN				" " "						
				14	CMPN				" " "						
				15	EXF			BEGINNING BIT #			# OF BITS				
				16	DPF			" " "			" " "				
				17	SETR			DB	DL	Z	STA	X	Q	S	
03	SUB	OPCODE	3	00	SPECIAL OP			00	SPARE						
				01	PAUS						K FIELD				
				02	SED						" "				
				03	XCHD						" "				
				04	SMSK						" "				
				05	RMSK						" "				
				06	XEQ						" "				
				07	SIO						" "				
				10	RIO						" "				
				11	WIO						" "				
				12	TIO						" "				
				13	CIO						" "				
				14	CMD						" "				
				15	SIRF						" "				
				16	SIN						" "				
				17	HALT						" "				
				01	SCAL			STT ENTRY # N			" " "				
				02	PCAL			" " "			" " "				
				03	EXIT			N FIELD			" "				
				04	SXIT			" "			" "				
				05	ADX1			" "			" "				
				06	SBX1			" "			" "				
				07	LLBL			PL- DISPLACEMENT N			" "				
				10	LDPP			P+ DISPLACEMENT N			" "				
				11	LDPN			P- DISPLACEMENT N			" "				
				12	ADDS			IMMEDIATE OPERAND N			" "				
				13	SUBS			" "			" "				
				14	TSBM			DB+ DISPLACEMENT N			" "				
				15	ORI			IMMEDIATE OPERAND N			" "				
				16	XORI			" "			" "				
				17	ANDI			" "			" "				
04		LOAD		X	I			PDQS ADDRESS MODE & DISPLACEMENT							
05		TBA		0	0	0	+/-	P RELATIVE DISPLACEMENT							
		MTBA		0	1	0	+/-	" " "							
		TBX		1	0	0	+/-	" " "							
		MTBX		1	1	0	+/-	" " "							
		STOR		X	I	1		DQS ADDRESS MODE & DISPLACEMENT							
06		CMPM		X	I			PDQS " " " "							
07		ADDM		X	I			" " " "							
10		SUBM		X	I			" " " "							
11		MPYM		X	I			" " " "							
12		INCM		X	I	0		DQS " " " "							
		DECM		X	I	1		" " " "							
13		LDX		X	I			PDQS " " " "							
14		BR		X	I	0	+/-	P RELATIVE DISPLACEMENT							
		BR		X	I	1		DQS ADDRESS MODE (INDIRECT) & DISPLACEMENT							
		BCC		I	0	1	CCG CCE CCL +/-	P RELATIVE DISPLACEMENT							
15		LDB		X	I	0		DQS ADDRESS MODE & DISPLACEMENT							
		LDD		X	I	1		" " " "							
16		STB		X	I	0		" " " "							
		STD		X	I	1		" " " "							
17		LRA		X	I			PDQS " " " "							

## OPCODE FORMATS

I	Indirection
X	Index register
CAPITALS	literals, options, opcodes; non-variable items
[ ]	pick one item from within the brackets; the entire item is optional.
{ }	pick one item from within the brackets; the item is required.
<i>opcode</i>	one of the system/3000 opcodes that uses this format
<i>label id</i>	a label which is within range of the opcode.
<i>variable id</i>	a variable which is within range of the opcode
<i>usi</i>	an unsigned integer less than or equal to the specified number
<i>procedure id</i>	a declared procedure identifier
<i>subroutine id</i>	a declared subroutine identifier

### Format 1

(1a)	<i>opcode</i>	$\left( \begin{array}{l} \textit{label id} \\ \textit{variable id} \\ \text{DB+ } \textit{usi } 255 \\ \text{P+ } \textit{usi } 255 \\ \text{P- } \textit{usi } 255 \\ \text{Q+ } \textit{usi } 127 \\ \text{Q- } \textit{usi } 63 \\ \text{S- } \textit{usi } 63 \end{array} \right)$	[,I] [,X]
(1b)	<i>opcode</i>	$\left( \begin{array}{l} \textit{variable id} \\ \text{DB+ } \textit{usi } 255 \\ \text{Q+ } \textit{usi } 127 \\ \text{Q- } \textit{usi } 63 \\ \text{S- } \textit{usi } 63 \end{array} \right)$	[,I] [,X]
(1c)	BR	$\left( \begin{array}{l} \textit{label id} \\ \text{P+ } \textit{usi } 255 \\ \text{P- } \textit{usi } 255 \end{array} \right)$	[,I] [,X]
	BR	$\left( \begin{array}{l} \text{DB+ } \textit{usi } 255 \\ \text{Q+ } \textit{usi } 127 \\ \text{Q- } \textit{usi } 63 \\ \text{S- } \textit{usi } 63 \end{array} \right)$	,I [,X]
(1d)	<i>opcode</i>	$\left( \begin{array}{l} \textit{label id} \\ \text{P+ } \textit{usi } 31 \\ \text{P- } \textit{usi } 31 \end{array} \right)$	[,I]

$$(1e) \quad opcode \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} label \ id \\ P+ \quad usi \ 255 \\ P- \quad usi \ 255 \end{array} \right\}$$

## Format 2

*opcode*  
or  
*opcode, opcode*      Note: *opcode* must be stack op.

## Format 3

$$(3a) \quad opcode \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} label \ id \\ P+ \quad usi \ 255 \\ P- \quad usi \ 255 \end{array} \right\} \quad [,I]$$

$$(3b) \quad opcode \quad usi \ 63 \quad [,X]$$

## Format 4

$$(4a) \quad opcode \quad usi \ 255$$

$$(4b) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} EXF \\ DPF \end{array} \right\} \quad usi \ 15: usi \ 15$$

## Format 5

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} RSW \\ LLSH \\ PLDA \\ PSTA \end{array} \right\}$$

## Format 6

$$opcode \quad usi \ 15$$

## Format 7

*opcode*      *usi* 255  
or  
PCAL      procedure id  
LLBL      procedure id

**Format 8**

$$(8a) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{MOVE} \\ \text{MVB} \\ \text{CMPB} \end{array} \right\} \quad [\text{PB}] \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} ,0 \\ ,1 \\ ,2 \\ ,3 \end{array} \right]$$

$$(8b) \quad \text{MVBW} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{A} \\ \text{N} \\ \text{AN} \\ \text{AS} \\ \text{ANS} \end{array} \right\} \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} ,0 \\ ,1 \\ ,2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$(8c) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{MVBL} \\ \text{MVLB} \\ \text{SCW} \\ \text{SCV} \end{array} \right\} \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} ,0 \\ ,1 \\ ,2 \end{array} \right]$$



## FUNCTIONAL CROSS REFERENCE

A (S-0 or TOS)	Bit	Condition Code
ADAX	SCAN	BCC
ADXA	TBC	BTST
DECA	TCBC	CMP
DEL	TRBC	DCMP
DUP	TSBC	DTST
INCA	TSBM	FCMP
LDXA	DPF	LCMP
STAX	EXF	TEST
XAX		TBC
IABZ	Branch	TCBC
DABZ	BCC	TRBC
	BCY	TSBC
Add	BNCY	TSBM
ADD	BOV	CMPI
ADDI	BNOV	CMPN
ADDM	BR	CMPB
DADD	BRE	
FADD	BRO	Decrement
LADD	CPRB	DECM
ADXI	DABZ	DECA
ADAX	IABZ	DECB
ADBX	DXBZ	DECX
ADXA	IXBZ	DABZ
ADXB	MTBA	DXBZ
INCM	MTBX	
INCA	TBA	Delete
INCB	TBX	DEL
INCX		DELB
	Byte	DDEL
And	LDB	
AND	STB	Divide
ANDI	MVB	DIV
	MVBW	DIVI
Arithmetic Shift	SCU	DIVL
ASL	SCW	FDIV
ASR	BTST	LDIV
DASL		
DASR	Circular Shift	
TASL	CSL	Double Integer Arithmetic
TASR	CSR	DCMP
	DCSL	DADD
B (S-1)	DCSR	DSUB
ADBX	Compare	MPYL (double result)
ADXB	CMP	DIVL (double dividend)
DECB	CMPM	DDEL
DELB	CMPI	DNEG
INCB	CMPN	DOUP
LDXB	DCMP	DZRO
STBX	FCMP	FIXR
XBX	LCMP	FIXT
ZROB		DFLT
		DXCH

## Double Word

LDD  
STD  
LDPP  
LDPN  
DDEL  
DDUP  
DXCH

## Double-Word Shift

DASL  
DASR  
DLSL  
DLSR  
DCSL  
DCSR

## Duplicate

DUP  
DDUP

## Exchange

DXCH  
XAX  
XBX  
XCH  
XCHD  
CAB

## Exclusive Or

XOR  
XORI

## Field

DPF  
EXF

## Fix

FIXT  
FIXR

## Float

FLT  
DELT

## Floating-Point

See Real Arithmetic

## Immediate

CMPI  
CMPN  
ADDI

## Immediate (cont.)

SUBI  
MPYI  
DIVI  
ORI  
XORI  
ANDI  
ADXI  
LDI  
LDNI  
LDXI  
LDXN  
SUBXI

## Increment

INCM  
INCA  
INCB  
INCX  
IABZ  
IXBZ

## Index Register

ADXI  
SBXI  
INCX  
DECX  
ZROX  
LDX  
DXBZ  
IXBZ  
MTBX  
TBX  
ADAX  
ADBX  
ADXA  
ADXB  
LDXA  
LDXB  
STAX  
STBX  
XAX  
XBX  
LDXI  
LDXN  
CPRB  
PLDA  
PSTA

## Integer Arithmetic

CMP  
ADD  
SUB  
MPY

## Integer Arithmetic (cont.)

DIV  
INCA  
DECA  
ADXI  
SUBXI  
INCX  
DECX  
CMPI  
CMPN  
ADDI  
SUBI  
MPY  
DIVI  
CMPM  
ADDM  
SUBM  
MPYM  
INCM  
DECM

## I/O-Interrupt-Common

CIO  
CMD  
RIO  
RMSK  
SED  
SIN  
SIO  
SIRF  
SMSK  
TIO  
WIO  
RSW

## Load

LOAD  
LDX  
LDB  
LDD  
LDPP  
LDPN  
LRA  
LDXA  
LDXB  
LDXI  
LDXN  
LDI  
LDNI

## Logical Arithmetic

LCMP  
LADD  
LSUB

# Logical Arithmetic (cont.)

LMPY  
LDIV  
NOT  
OR  
XOR  
AND  
ORI  
XORI  
ANDI

# Loop Control

MTBX  
MTBA  
TBX  
TBA  
CPRB  
IABZ  
IXBZ  
DABZ  
DXBZ

# Memory Reference

ADDM  
CMPM  
DECM  
INCM  
LDB  
LDD  
LDPN  
LDPP  
LDX  
LOAD  
LRA  
MPYM  
STB  
STD  
STOR  
SUBM  
TBA  
TBX  
MTBA  
MTBX  
BR  
BCC

# Move

CMPB  
MOVE  
MVB  
MVBW  
MVBL  
MVLB

# Move (cont.)

SCU  
SCW

# Multiply

MPY  
MPYM  
MPYI  
MPYL  
FMPY  
LMPY

# Negate

NEG  
DNEG  
FNEG  
NOT

# Or

OR  
ORI  
XOR  
XORI

# Privileged

CIO  
CMD  
RIO  
RMSK  
SED  
SIN  
SIO  
SIRF  
SMSK  
TIO  
WIO  
HALT  
PAUS  
SETR  
PLDA  
PSTA  
LLSH  
MVBL  
MVLB  
XCHD

# Procedures

PCAL  
EXIT

# Program Control

PCAL  
EXIT  
SCAL  
SXIT  
HALT  
PAUS  
XEQ  
LLBL  
NOP

# Real Arithmetic

FCMP  
FADD  
FSUB  
FMPY  
FDIV  
FNEG  
FLT  
DFLT  
FIXR  
FIXT  
DDVP  
DZRO  
DDEL  
DXCH

# Register Control

ADDS  
SUBS  
PSHR  
SETR  
XCHD

# Scan

SCW  
SCU  
SCAN

# Shift

ASL  
ASR  
CSL  
CSR  
LSL  
LSR  
DASL  
DASR  
DCSL  
DCSR  
DLSL  
DLSR

## Shift (cont.)

TASL  
TASR  
TNSL

## Single-Word

LOAD  
STORE  
MOVE  
MVLB  
MVBL  
PLDA  
PSTA  
LDX  
DEL  
XCH  
DELB  
DUP  
LDXA  
LDXB  
STXA  
STXB  
XAX  
XBX

## Single-Word Shift

CSL  
CSR  
ASL  
ASR  
LSL  
LSR

## Special

LLBL  
LLSH  
PLDA  
PSTA  
RSW

## Stack op

ADAX  
ADBX  
ADD  
ADXA  
ADXB  
AND  
BTST  
CAB  
CMP  
DADD  
DCMP  
DDEL

## Stack op (cont.)

DDUP  
DECA  
DECB  
DECX  
DEL  
DELB  
DFLT  
DIV  
DIVL  
DNEG  
DSUB  
DTST  
DUP  
DXCH  
DZRO  
FADD  
FCMP  
FDIV  
FIXR  
FIXT  
FLT  
FMPY  
FNEG  
FSUB  
INCA  
INCB  
INCX  
LADD  
LCMP  
LDIV  
LDXA  
LDXB  
LMPY  
LSUB  
MPY  
MPYL  
NEG  
NOP  
NOT  
OR  
STAX  
STBX  
SUB  
TEST  
XAX  
XBX  
XCH  
XOR  
ZERO  
ZROB  
ZROX

## Store

STOR  
STB  
STD  
STAX  
STBX

## Subroutines

SCAL  
SXIT

## Subtract

SUB  
SUBM  
SUBI  
DSUB  
FSUB  
LSUB  
SBXI  
DECM  
DECA  
DECB  
DECX

## Test

BTST  
TEST  
LTST  
TBC  
TCBC  
TRBC  
TSBC  
TSBM  
TBA  
TBX  
MTBA  
MTBX

## Triple-Word Shifts

TASL  
TASR  
TNSL  
CAB

## Zero

ZERO  
DZRO  
ZROB  
ZROX

# ***APPENDIX F***

## ***BNF Syntax Index***

This index lists all of the syntax productions or rules in this manual. They are in alphabetic order, with the enclosing less than (<) and greater (>) stripped off.

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# ***APPENDIX G***

## ***Building an Intrinsic File***

The program BUILDINT is used to build or change intrinsic disc files. The program uses \$STDIN for input and \$STDLIST for list output. The intrinsic data file is opened as SPLINTR.

The command to execute the program is

**:RUN BUILDINT**

The input data consists of SPL/3000 procedure head declarations (OPTION EXTERNAL is required) and optional commands.

Without commands, the procedure head declarations are added to the intrinsic file.

Commands have the following purposes:

<b>\$PURGE</b>	Removes all entries from the intrinsic file.
<b>\$REMOVE</b>	Removes all entries which follow this command, until a \$BUILD. Input has the same format as for adding entries.
<b>\$BUILD</b>	Adds all subsequent input entries to the intrinsic file. \$BUILD is required only if \$REMOVE is used.

Any input data which is not a procedure head terminates input. At this point, the program prints a formatted list of all intrinsics and terminates.

For example,

```
:PURGE MYFILE
:BUILD MYFILE
:FILE SPLINTR=MYFILE
:RUN BUILDINT
INTEGER PROCEDURE M(A,B,C); VALUE A; INTEGER A,B; LOGICAL C;
OPTION EXTERNAL; PROCEDURE COMP(N,M'); VALUE N,M'; DOUBLE N; REAL M';
OPTION EXTERNAL;
PROCEDURE BYT(L,M,N,O; LABEL L; PROCEDURE M; BYTE ARRAY N;
LOGICAL POINTER O; OPTION EXTERNAL;
:EOD
```

See the next page for the formatted output for this file.



NAME	TYPE	OPTIONS	#PAR	PARAMETERS																		
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
BYT	N	0E	4	RNL	RNT	RBA	RLP															
COMP	N	0E	2	VDS	VRS																	
M	1	0E	3	VIS	RIS	RLS																

NO. ERRORS=000

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03000-90002 November 1973

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